157

McGRAW-HILL SERIES IN EDUCATION

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

McGRAW-HILL SERIES IN EDUCATION

Harold Benjamin, *Consulting Editor*

The Modern Rural School

McGraw-Hill Series in Education
HAROLD BENJAMIN, *Consulting Editor*

ALLEN · The Federal Government and Education
BEAUMONT AND MACOMBER · Psychological Factors in Education
BENT AND KRONENBERG · Principles of Secondary Education
BOGUE · The Community College
BROOM, DUNCAN, EMIG, AND STEUBER · Effective Reading Instruction
BRUBACHER · A History of the Problems of Education
BRUBACHER · Modern Philosophies of Education
BUTLER AND WREN · The Teaching of Secondary Mathematics
BUTTERWORTH AND DAWSON · The Modern Rural School
BUTTS · A Cultural History of Education
COOK AND COOK · A Sociological Approach to Education
CROW AND CROW · Mental Hygiene
CROXTON · Science in the Elementary School
DAVIS · Educational Psychology
DAVIS AND NORRIS · Guidance Handbook for Teachers
DE BOER, KAULFERS, AND MILLER · Teaching Secondary English
DE YOUNG · Introduction to American Public Education
FEDDER · Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities
FERNALD · Remedial Techniques in Basic School Subjects
FOREST · Early Years at School
GOOD · Dictionary of Education
HAGMAN · The Administration of American Public Schools
HAMMONDS · Teaching Agriculture
HECK · The Education of Exceptional Children
HOPPOCK · Group Guidance
KAULFERS · Modern Languages for Modern Schools
MCCULLOUGH, STRANG, AND TRAXLER · Problems in the Improvement of Reading
MCKOWN · Activities in the Elementary School
MCKOWN · Home Room Guidance

McKown and Roberts · Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction
McNerney · Educational Supervision
Mays · Essentials of Industrial Education
Mays · Principles and Practices of Vocational Education
Melvin · General Methods of Teaching
Micheels and Karnes · Measuring Educational Achievement
Mort · Principles of School Administration
Mort and Reusser · Public School Finance
Mort and Vincent · Modern Educational Practice
Mursell · Developmental Teaching
Mursell · Successful Teaching
Myers · Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance
Pittenger · Local Public School Administration
Remmlein · School Law
Sanford and Cottle · Social Studies in the Secondary School
Sanford, Hand, and Spalding · The Schools and National Security
Schorling · Student Teaching
Schorling and Wingo · Elementary-school Student Teaching
Sears · The Nature of the Administrative Process
Smith, Standley, and Hughes · Junior High School Education
Sorenson · Psychology in Education
Thorpe · Psychological Foundations of Personality
Thut and Gerberich · Foundations of Method for Secondary Schools
Tidyman and Butterfield · Teaching the Language Arts
Warters · High-school Personnel Work Today
Wells · Elementary Science Education
Wells · Secondary Science Education
Wilson, Stone, and Dalrymple · Teaching the New Arithmetic
Winslow · Art in Elementary Education
Winslow · The Integrated School Art Program

The Modern Rural School

JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH

Cornell University

HOWARD A. DAWSON

National Education Association

With Chapters by

Stanley Warren
William A. Smith
Margaret Hutchins
B. Frank Kyker
Lynn Emerson
Douglas Ensminger
M. Slade Kendrick

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
100
Dept. of Extension
SERVICE.
★ CALCUTTA-27 ★

FIRST EDITION
SECOND IMPRESSION

379.1
But

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.

New York Toronto London

1952

THE MODERN RURAL SCHOOL

Copyright, 1952, by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. Printed in the United States of America. All rights reserved. This book, or parts thereof, may not be reproduced in any form without permission of the publishers.

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 51-12592

THE MAPLE PRESS COMPANY, YORK, PA.

PREFACE

Rural education is still a very great reality in America. Automotive transportation, good roads and highways, scientific developments with their accompaniment of new means and methods of agricultural production and processing, the enlargement of community boundaries and areas of association throughout rural America, the readjustment and expansion of community agencies and institutions, along with other factors, have brought about modern rural life. The schools serving rural people have not escaped the effects of these new conditions.

The education of rural children and youth is a large part of the task of the American public school system. Almost half the children of school age, about 14.6 million, live in rural areas. In fact, over 7.7 million of those children live on farms. About half the public school teachers are employed in schools located in rural areas. A large majority of school administrators have responsibility for the education of children and youth living in a rural environment. Because many rural children attend schools located in urban areas, more than half of all public school teachers have a direct responsibility in the field of rural education.

This book is based upon a broad concept of what comprises the field of rural education. Accepting the proposition that there are principles of education that are universally applicable, the authors begin with the assumption that good education is based on the experiences and environmental influences of children and youth; that the rural environment as an important aspect of American life can be, and often is, very good; and that education for people living in rural communities presents unique problems that constitute the clearly identifiable field of rural education.

The authors have endeavored to make this book useful to a large number of persons concerned with rural education: to students in the field of rural education, both undergraduate and graduate; to graduate students in school administration, a very large majority of whom are going to be responsible for the administration of schools that serve pupils from rural areas, though not exclusively so; to the superintendents, principals, and supervisors of community schools or school systems that include rural areas; to county and intermediate unit superintendents of schools and their professional staff members; to rural teachers, including those who teach pupils from both rural and urban environments, who need to understand the fundamentals of education that will best serve rural America; and to a considerable number of laymen interested in conserving the best of rural life and in the adjustment of schools to the needs of modern times.

Three features of this book are worthy of special mention: (1) The social and economic bases of the unique problems in the field of rural education are presented in Chapters 2 to 6, inclusive; (2) the chief specifics of the educational program needed by rural America are set forth in Chapters 7 to 17, inclusive; and (3) the ways and means of obtaining the educational program previously specified are delineated in Chapters 18 to 25, inclusive.

This book was planned jointly by the authors. They invited each of seven well-known authorities to write a chapter to fit into the main plan and philosophy they desired to present. Chapters 4, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 24 were written by those authors as indicated in the Table of Contents. In a large sense all the other chapters were written jointly, particularly Chapter 21. Dr. Butterworth assumed major responsibility for Chapters 5, 7, 9, 15, 17, 18, 20, 22, and 23; Dr. Dawson, for Chapters 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 16, 19, and 25.

The authors are especially indebted to a number of persons. The late Emery N. Ferris, Professor of Rural Education, Cornell University, had originally planned with Dr. Butterworth the production of a book such as this one. Dr. Shirley Cooper, Assistant Secretary, American Association of School Administrators, and Dr. Charles O. Fitzwater, Assistant Director, NEA Division of Rural Service, read the entire manuscript and made many valuable suggestions. Dr. Fitzwater compiled much of the statistical data used in Chapters 2, 3, 6, 8, and 25. He also formulated several of the ideas included in Chapter 6. Miss Lois M. Clark, Assistant Director, NEA Division of Rural Service, made exceedingly valuable contributions to Chapter 8. Miss Virginia Neel, Editorial Assistant, NEA Division of Rural Service, compiled much of the data used in Chapter 16 and greatly aided the author in the final revisions of that chapter. In addition, certain chapters have been read critically by specialists who have made useful suggestions: Chapter 15, by Dr. Dean F. Smiley, Executive Secretary, Association of American Medical Colleges; Chapters 17 and 18, by Professor N. E. Kullman, Jr., State Teachers College, Plattsburg, N.Y.; Chapter 22, by Meader Pattington, Principal, Odessa Central School, Odessa, N.Y., and former Supervisor of Transportation, New York State Education Department; and Chapter 23, by Dr. Don Essex, Director, Division of School Buildings and Grounds, New York State Education Department.

Appreciation is also expressed to the several authors of other publications for permission to quote and cite their works as shown in the footnotes of the text.

Julian E. Butterworth
Howard A. Dawson

Ithaca, N.Y.
Washington, D.C.
October, 1951

CONTENTS

Preface vii

Part I. The Rural School in Transition

1. Rural Education Yesterday and Tomorrow 3

Part II. Some Social and Economic Backgrounds of Rural Education

2. Some Major Trends in Rural Life Related to Education . . 23
3. Rural Income and Its Social Effects 42
4. Making Farming Pay—*Stanley W. Warren, Professor of Farm Management, Cornell University* 60
5. The Rural Community and Its Educational Implications . . 77
6. Resource-use Education in the Rural Schools 98

Part III. An Educational Program for Rural America

7. The Rural School of Tomorrow: Purposes and Program . . 117
8. Education for Rural Children 138
9. The Education of Rural Youth 154
10. Vocational Education in Agriculture—*William A. Smith, Associate Professor of Agricultural Education, Cornell University* 175
11. Education for Homemaking—*Margaret Hutchins, Professor of Home Economics Education, Cornell University* 192
12. Education for Business—*B. Frank Kyker, Chief, Business Education Section, United States Office of Education* . . . 207
13. Education for Industry—*Lynn Emerson, Professor of Industrial Education, Cornell University* 224
14. Educational Activities outside the School in Rural Areas—*Douglas Ensminger, United States Department of Agriculture* . 240
15. Special Services for Pupils 254
16. Education for Disadvantaged Groups in Rural Areas . . . 274
17. The Community-centered School 294

Part IV. Ways and Means of Implementing the Program

18. Leadership as the Basic Means of Improving Education . . 313
19. Developing More Effective School Districts 328
20. Expanding the Educational Programs through an Intermediate District 350
21. Personnel for Rural Schools 367
22. Pupil Transportation as an Essential Service 388
23. The School Plant in the Rural Community 411
24. Improving the Tax Program—*M. Slade Kendrick, Professor of Public Finance, Cornell University* 433
25. Financing Rural Schools 450

List of Visual Aids 471
Name Index 477
Subject Index 483

TION FOR WOMEN ★ 27

Part One

THE RURAL SCHOOL IN TRANSITION

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
Dept. of Extension
SERVICE.
CALCUTTA-27

CHAPTER 1

RURAL EDUCATION YESTERDAY AND TOMORROW

The education of the young in any society takes its purposes, objectives, and means from the culture, including the ethics, morals, customs, and economic situation, of the adults concerned. Thus, from the earliest colonial times the education of children and youth in rural communities of the United States has been largely determined by the way of life of the rural people. That way of life has undergone continuous change, resulting in new emphases in education. Modern rural schools emphasize not only the three R's, but also opportunities for understanding and solving life problems of rural citizens in today's American life. Ideal rural schools have become dynamic community institutions.

Each decade has witnessed a growing proportion of rural school-age population attending school an increasing number of days per year. Over the decades, until 1930, the school-age population increased greatly, while, because of declining birth rates, it became a smaller percentage of the total population; school enrollments increased; larger percentages of children entered and remained in school; and school terms became longer.

An increasing proportion of school buildings are greatly different in arrangements and structure from those of earlier days and vastly more expensive. Both the total and per capita school expenditures have increased manyfold, especially since 1900. As to rural teachers, their salaries have increased, although they have fluctuated with booms and depressions; and their qualifications have become different, more extensive, and more highly professional.

School consolidations and school district reorganizations, being made necessary and desirable by changes in agricultural production, new means of transportation, and new needs for education, have resulted in decreases in the number of schools and school districts and increases in the size of both. To the new rural school has come a new type of administrative leadership which has stimulated the improvement of the educational program and at the same time has been partly the product of the new conditions. With all these changes the rural schools in most respects have remained a decade or more behind the urban schools.

Changes in rural education have been proposed and guided by many individuals, organizations, committees, and commissions and by some of the colleges and universities. The nature of the changes that have occurred and others that may be expected are the subject matter of this chapter. An understanding of the past, an evaluation of the present, and a look ahead to the rural schools of tomorrow are needed by all who would build a better rural America.

Our Changing Rural Life. We live in a dynamic world and rural America is an essential and integral part of it. The life of the farmer and his village neighbors would indeed be simple if there were no such thing as change in the world. But the weather will not stay constant or exactly predictable; soils wash away to the sea; neighbors change their minds, attitudes, and standards; markets are not always the same and prices fluctuate; scientists seem never to take a holiday and their number forever increases.

In America we began as an agricultural people depending upon the soil and working in highly self-sufficient farm family units. Methods of cultivating the soil and farm implements were crude and primitive. The spinning wheel and the shoe last are symbolic of family production for the sustenance of the family. In contrast there are modern farm machinery, a variety of specialized plows for tilling the soil, the motor tractor, the harvester, the flame thrower for weeding crops, the mechanical cotton picker, hybrid corn, new types of grain and vegetables produced through plant breeding, purebred livestock developed for special purposes, the purchase of clothing, food, and household conveniences produced by highly specialized commercial industry. The contrast indicates a changed way of rural living.

Causes of Change in Rural Life. During the past century, at least three clearly identifiable factors have been involved in changing many of the most fundamental habits, customs, ideas, and economic activities of traditional rural America. These factors may be designated as industrial development and commercialization, urbanization, and technological advance.[1]

Industrial development and commercialization. The self-sufficiency of the early American farmer ran headlong into the rapid development of an industrial system in America. As cities grew in size and more and more workers were employed in manufacturing, the farmer had to produce food and fiber for the industrial workers and their families. Not only that, but he had to produce agricultural products to ship to Europe to pay for the European goods and capital needed for industrial development in this country. In addition he came to want the products of the new industry; he wanted more of the conveniences, which soon became necessities. He wanted kerosene oil, a sewing machine, new and better plows and vehicles, "store-bought" clothing, a telephone, and so on ad infinitum.

---

[1] Johnstone, Paul H. "Old Ideas versus New Ideas in Farm Life." *Farmers in a Changing World.* Yearbook of Agriculture. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1940, pp. 139–167.

In all this he became more and more involved in the commercial aspects of living. His business customers, the agricultural journals, the schools and colleges all began to urge the farmer to take the businessman as his model. It came to be accepted that although a farmer might do very well in supporting and rearing a family, he was not to be considered as successful unless he could show a profit. Commercial success became the criterion of agricultural success.

Urban influences on rural life. The farmer took kindly to urban standards of living and urban tastes. He also came to identify himself with industrial employers and commercial proprietors. The gap between the farmer and the city laboring classes became wider as the industrial workers demanded shorter hours, higher pay, and better working conditions. Unintentionally the farmer became more and more urbanized in his way of living. The mail-order catalogues, the farm magazines with their urban stories and advertisements, the motion pictures, the radio, and the urban high schools that the farmers' children attended have all contributed to the modification of the traditional way of life.

As late as 1870 only a fifth of the people of the United States lived in places of 8,000 or more population. The proportion of urban dwellers has increased each decade. By 1930 nearly half—over 60 million—of our people lived in places of 8,000 or more. As a result, in 1946, less than one-fifth the total number of our people lived on the farm. Throughout the decades what were once communities sometimes became only neighborhoods. Many hamlets became cities, and some cities became vast metropolitan centers of trade and commerce. Numerous villages have disappeared and others have arisen to take their places.

Technological advance. All through the years farmers sought and applied the advice of technical experts. At an impressive rate they made use of inventions and increased the use of farm machinery. The tractor displaced the horse and mule; by 1930 farmers were using over 3.3 billion dollars' worth of agricultural machines, and by 1948 the amount was 9.5 billion dollars' worth. Although some agricultural educators over the years, notably Kenyon L. Butterfield and Liberty Hyde Bailey, emphasized the cultural values of the rural way of life, the educational emphasis for the most part was on economic advancement based on the use of scientific and technical discoveries and inventions.

Rural America no less than the urban centers has been vitally affected by the coming of the telegraph, telephone, radio, motion picture, automobile, paved roads, railroads, home mechanical conveniences, and a multitude of scientific discoveries, and with it all America has gone from an almost wholly rural country to one having many marked urban characteristics.

Changing Emphases in Rural Education. With all the changes in economic and social conditions in rural life there have been corresponding changes in the emphasis as to what are the objectives of schools in rural America and what they should do.

In the early days the home and family were largely self-sufficient. Much of what was learned by the youngest generation needed for making a living was learned in the home, on the farm, and in the family shop from parents, older brothers and sisters, and neighbors. Under these conditions the school was a supplementary institution maintained by the families of a neighborhood cooperatively for the purpose of teaching children to read, write, and cipher. The religious motive was strong, and one of the chief reasons for learning to read was to be able to read the Bible.

With each advancing decade additions to the curriculum or changes in emphasis on subject matter and methods of teaching have occurred. The curriculum of the elementary school now contains at least four times as many studies and activities as it did in the early 1800's. In short, a new conception of the function of the school is now held, and the modern rural school, as well as the urban school, is expected to offer opportunities to practice life, to develop useful skills and habits, to create desirable appreciations and attitudes, and to train in reflective thinking and analysis.

The Elementary School. The elementary curriculum now considered adequate to achieve the purposes of education provides training in reading (including literature appreciation), arithmetic, language (both oral and written) and grammar, writing, spelling, geography, history, citizenship and civics, nature study and elementary science, art, music, health (including elementary physiology and hygiene), and physical education. Besides these subjects a number of others are often found either as units of more traditional courses or as separate classes, such as thrift, fire prevention, conservation, state history, elementary agriculture, the United States Constitution, and safety.

The trend in curriculum organization in the elementary school, and especially in small schools found largely in rural areas, is to organize subject matter into broad, integrated divisions or fields, a procedure explained in Chapter 8.

The High School. In the high schools serving rural pupils several distinct trends have for some time been under way, the most noticeable of which are the following: (1) The curriculum is being changed from one designed chiefly to prepare a select few to enter liberal arts colleges to one broad enough in scope to serve the needs of the whole population of high school age. (2) Training in agriculture and related subjects and in homemaking is offered for the special benefit of the pupils who expect to become farmers or farmers' wives. (3) Courses of instruction intended to prepare a considerable number (usually half) of the pupils for participation in industrial, commercial, and professional pursuits are offered, recognizing that many rural youth of necessity will migrate to urban communities (see Chapter 9).

What Farm Leaders Emphasize. An indication of the changing emphases in education for rural children and youth has been obtained from a recent survey of the opinions of farm leaders of national, state, and county officials of the four major farm organizations—the National Grange, the American Farm Bureau Federation, the National Farmers' Union, and the National Council of Farmer Cooperatives.[1] From 74 to 98 per cent of these agricultural leaders reported that they believed the schools should better prepare their pupils in the following fields of interest or activity listed in the order of the per cent favorable: conservation of natural resources, individual and community health, home and family life, farmers' cooperatives, community recreation, political issues, and sex education. They also ranked as "excellent" vocational agriculture, vocational home economics, science, and bookkeeping; as "good" fine arts, typing, social studies, physical education, and industrial arts; and as "poor" Latin and modern foreign languages. All the leaders believed that high school education today is as important for rural youth as for city youth; three-fourths of them did not believe that rural teachers are adequately trained for the specific job of teaching in a rural community; and nearly half of them thought that schools in small towns overemphasize preparation for city life.[2]

School Population, Enrollments, and Attendance. Since full school attendance of the school-age population is desirable, it is of interest to know how many such children and youth there are, how many of them attend school, what the trends are, how rural and urban areas compare in these respects, and what the probable future conditions will be.

---

[1] American Institute of Cooperation, and Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Farm Leaders and Teachers Plan Together.* Washington, D.C., 1947, pp. 25–26.

[2] Other new emphases in rural education, especially in finance, organization, administration, and various subject-matter fields and other school activities, are adequately presented in other chapters of this book.

The Rural School Population. Of the more than 29 million children five to seventeen years old in the United States, approximately half are in rural areas. These rural children are distributed almost equally between the rural-farm and the rural-nonfarm areas, a slightly larger number being on the farms. Between 1930 and 1940 the rural and urban areas each experienced decreases of nearly 900,000 school-age children. All the decrease in the rural areas occurred among the rural-farm people, the rural-nonfarm areas actually experiencing an increase of nearly 130,000. Between 1940 and 1947 the urban areas had a slight increase in school-age population, while the farms had another decrease of 883,000. At the same time the rural-nonfarm areas had an increase of 443,000 children of school age (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. POPULATION 5 TO 17 YEARS OLD IN THE UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL-NONFARM, AND RURAL-FARM, 1930, 1940, AND OCTOBER, 1947
(In thousands)

Population area	1930[a]		1940[b]		1947[b]	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
United States......	31,571	100	29,740	100	29,312	100
Urban............	15,685	49.4	14,703	49.4	14,721	50.2
Total rural........	15,886	50.6	15,041	50.6	14,591	49.8
Rural-nonfarm[c]....	6,306	20.0	6,434	21.6	6,867	23.4
Rural-farm[c]........	9,580	30.6	8,607	29.0	7,724	26.4

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Part 1, pp. 22–27.

[b] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 19. Washington, D.C., July 30, 1948.

[c] Partially estimated. Age group 5 to 17 had to be estimated from age group 5 to 19.

In relation to the total population the proportion of school-age children decreased by nearly 20 per cent between 1930 and 1947. The decrease in urban areas was 22.5 per cent, as compared to about 15 per cent in rural areas. Since the change in the proportion in farm areas was relatively small, most of the decrease in rural areas occurred in rural-nonfarm communities (see Table 2). Thus in urban and rural-nonfarm areas there has been a constantly decreasing proportion of the population to support in elementary and high schools; but in rural-farm areas the burden has decreased less rapidly, and not at all between 1940 and 1947

TABLE 2. POPULATION 5 TO 17 YEARS OLD AS PER CENT OF TOTAL POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL-NONFARM AND RURAL-FARM, 1930, 1940, AND 1947[a]

Population area	1930[a]	1940[b]	1947[b]
United States	25.7	22.6	20.6
Urban	22.7	19.8	17.6
Rural-nonfarm[c]	26.8	23.8	22.2
Rural-farm[c]	31.6	28.3	28.4
Total rural	29.5	26.3	25.1

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Part 1, pp. 22–27.

[b] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 19. Washington, D.C., July 30, 1948.

[c] Partially estimated. Age group 5 to 17 had to be estimated from age group 5 to 19.

School Enrollments. Although until 1947 the rural children five to seventeen years old have been more than half of such children in the nation (Table 1), the number of them enrolled in school has been less than half the total national enrollment (Table 3). This situation reflects the fact that a smaller per cent of the rural children than of urban children have enrolled in school. However, the per cent of rural children enrolled in school has so steadily increased that the difference between the proportion of rural and urban children attending school was very small by 1947 (Table 5).

A word of caution should be observed in considering rural school enrollments. The number of children enrolled in rural schools is one thing, and the number of rural children enrolled in school is something else. More rural children attend school than attend schools located in rural areas. For a long time rural pupils have attended city schools, especially high schools. Since the statistics of enrollments have been for rural and urban schools and not for rural and urban children, the enrollment of rural children has been greater and that of urban children less than the statistical reports have indicated. Fortunately the Bureau of the Census now reports enrollment statistics for rural and urban children of school age. Unfortunately (exceedingly so) the United States Office of Education has not collected or published any statistics on rural schools since 1941–1942, except that data regarding rural high schools were published for 1945–1946.

In view of the situation just pointed out, two tables showing the statistics of enrollments are presented here (Tables 3 and 4). The first shows the enrollments in rural and urban *schools;* the second shows the enrollment of rural and urban *children* of school age. The comparative status of the rural and urban enrollments is then shown in Table 5. These three tables are published in full because they present facts hitherto given but slight attention in the literature of educational statistics.

Figure 1 has been presented to indicate the effect that a high per cent of rural population has on the per cent of enrollment that is in high school. In general, high school attendance in any state has been adversely affected by the extent to which the population of the state is rural. In order to get a graphic picture of this situation, the states were divided into eight divisions of six states, each ranked according to the per cent of rural population. For each of these groups the median per cent of total school enrollment that was in high school in 1947–1948 was found. It is obvious from Figure 1 that the states having the highest per cents of rural population tend to have the lowest per cents of their total school enrollments in high school.

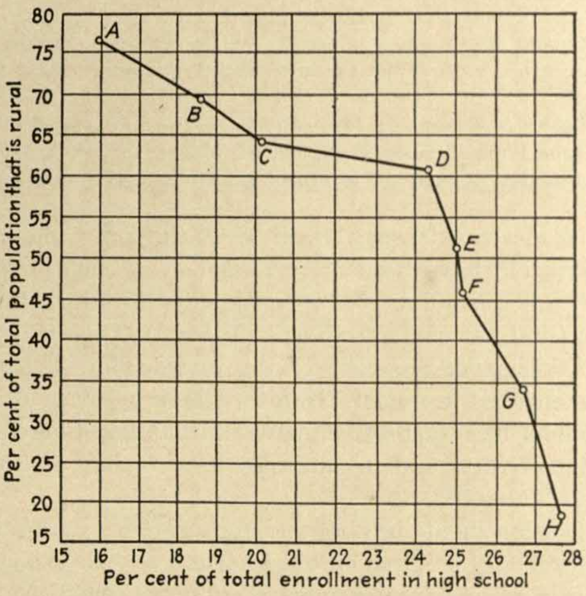

FIG. 1. Relationship between per cent of rural population and per cent of total enrollment in high school. The 48 states are arranged in order according to per cent of rural population and separated into eight groups of six states each. The graph is based on the medians of the eight groups, respectively.

The situation as to school enrollments can be summarized briefly as follows: (1) There are more rural children enrolled in all schools (urban as well as rural) than are enrolled in schools located in rural areas (Tables 3 and 4). About 565,000 rural children attend urban schools. (2) The rural areas still have a smaller per cent of school-age population enrolled in school than urban areas (Table 5). At the rate of increase in the enrollment of rural children since 1940, it will be only a few years until the rural areas equal the urban areas in the per cent of their school population enrolled in school. (3) Since 1940 the per cent that enrollment is of total population has been increasing slightly in rural areas and decreasing in urban areas (Table 5). The per cent of total population enrolled in school in urban areas in 1948 was only 15.3 as compared to 19.0 in rural-nonfarm and 23.0 in rural farm areas. (4) Enrollments decreased in both rural and urban areas between 1940 and 1947 (Table 3), but the urban decreases were the greater. The decreases occurred mostly in high schools and probably were due chiefly to war conditions of employment. (5) The more rural the population of a state is, the more likely is the high school

TABLE 3. ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL, RURAL NONFARM, AND RURAL-FARM, 1930 TO 1948
(In thousands)

Population area	Total number enrolled			Number enrolled in high school		
	1929–1930	1939–1940	1947–1948	1929–1930	1939–1940	1947–1948
United States......	25,678[a]	25,434[b]	23,943[c]	4,399[a]	6,601[b]	5,653[c]
Urban............	12,790[a]	13,310[b]	12,211[d]	2,752[e]	3,812[b]	3,064[f]
Rural.............	12,888[a]	12,124[b]	11,732[d]	1,647[e]	2,789[b]	2,589[f]
Rural-nonfarm.....	....	5,413[d]	5,449[d]	......	1,247[f]	1,196[f]
Rural-farm........	....	6,711[d]	6,183[d]	......	1,542[f]	1,393[f]

[a] U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1929–1930." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928–1930.* Washington, D.C., 1932, Chap. II, pp. 37, 40.

[b] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1939–1940 and 1941–1942." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1938–1940 and 1940–1942.* Washington, D.C., 1944, Chap. III, pp. 45, 122, 124.

[c] Blose, David T. *State School Systems: Statistical Summary for 1947–1948.* Circular No. 270. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), March, 1950.

[d] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 19. Washington, D.C., July 30, 1948. Estimated from the percentage distribution of the number of persons 5 to 17 years old enrolled in school in 1940 and 1947, respectively.

[e] U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1931–1932." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1930–1932,* Bulletin No. 2. Washington, D.C., 1933, pp. 100, 102. Distribution of urban and rural high school enrollments are estimated by using percentage distribution for 1931–1932.

[f] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *loc. cit.* Estimated on basis of number of persons 14 to 17 years old enrolled in school.

enrollment to be a relatively small proportion of the total school enrollment (Figure 1).

Future Enrollments. Because of substantial increases in birth rates since 1940, especially since 1945, it is quite certain that material increases in school enrollments will occur in the future. Official estimates by the Bureau of the Census predict that the enrollment in all schools, public and private, will increase from 24,546,000 in 1948 to 34,046,000 in 1960, an increase of 38.7 per cent.[1] The increase in elementary school enrollments will be 43.2 per cent and in the high school, 25.5 per cent. Obviously the increased number of elementary pupils will eventually cause corresponding increases in high school enrollments after 1960.

TABLE 4. NUMBER OF PUPILS 5 TO 17 AND 14 TO 17 YEARS OLD ENROLLED IN SCHOOL (PUBLIC AND PRIVATE), UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL, RURAL-NONFARM, AND RURAL-FARM, 1930, 1940, AND 1947
(In thousands)

Population area	5–17 years old			14–17 years old		
	1929–1930	April, 1940[a]	October, 1947[a]	1929–1930	April, 1940[a]	October, 1947[a]
United States......	25,678[b]	24,549	25,107	4,339[b]	7,709	6,737
Urban............	12,790	12,830	12,810	2,752[c]	4,233	3,652
Total rural........	12,888	11,719	12,297	1,647[c]	3,476	3,085
Rural-nonfarm.....	....	5,233	5,870	......	1,565	1,424
Rural-farm........	....	6,486	6,427	......	1,911	1,661

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 19. Washington, D.C., July 30, 1948.

[b] U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1929–1930." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1928–1930.* Washington, D.C., 1932, Chap. II, pp. 37, 40.

[c] U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1931–1932." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1930–1932,* Bulletin No. 2. Washington, D.C., 1933, pp. 100, 102. Distribution of urban and rural high school enrollments are estimated by using percentage distribution for 1931–1932.

On the basis of the annual rates of increase in the number of six-year-old children during 1940 to 1945 and 1945 to 1947 and the Bureau of the Census estimates referred to above, the author of this chapter has estimated the enrollment of children from urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm areas separately. The estimates are shown in Table 6. The most obvious point about the table is that the greatest increases are expected in rural-nonfarm areas. Increases in urban areas will be about two-thirds as great as in the rural-nonfarm areas. Practically no increases are expected in rural-farm areas.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Forecasts of Population and School Enrollments in the United States: 1948 to 1960.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 18. Washington, D.C., Feb. 14, 1949, p. 16.

Of the total estimated enrollments, about 10 per cent of the elementary school pupils and 6 per cent of the high school pupils will be in private schools.[1] Since the rural public school enrollments are not affected to any appreciable degree by private schools, it is safe to assume that the forecasts for rural schools are almost entirely for public schools.

TABLE 5. PER CENT RELATIONSHIPS OF SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION ENROLLED IN SCHOOL TO TOTAL SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION AND TO TOTAL POPULATION, AND OF HIGH-SCHOOL POPULATION ENROLLED IN SCHOOL TO TOTAL SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION ENROLLED, UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL, RURAL-NONFARM, AND RURAL-FARM, YEARS ENDING 1930, 1940, AND 1948[a]

(Enrolled in all schools, public and private)

Per cent 5–17 years old enrolled	United States	Urban	Rural	Rural-nonfarm	Rural-farm
1929–1930	81.3	81.5	81.0		
1939–1940	82.5	87.3	77.9	81.3	75.3
1947–1948	85.7	87.1	84.2	85.5	83.2
Per cent, 5–17 years old, enrolled of total population					
1929–1930	20.9	18.4	23.9		
1939–1940	18.6	17.2	20.5	19.4	21.5
1947–1948	17.7	15.3	21.1	19.0	23.0
Per cent enrolled, 14–17, of 5–17 enrolled					
1929–1930	17.1	20.9	13.1		
1939–1940	31.4	33.0	29.6	29.9	29.5
1947–1948	26.8	28.5	25.1	24.3	25.8

[a] All data calculated from Tables 1 and 4 of this chapter and Table 7, Chap. 2.

Economic conditions will no doubt aid in keeping more children in school for more years and more days in the year. Further technical improvements in the means of production in both industry and agriculture will still further reduce the need for the gainful employment of children and youth. If a higher average family income becomes available to rural people, rural parents will be able to provide a longer period of education for their children.

---

[1] Assuming 1939–1940 enrollment relationship.

Children Not in School. In 1947 there were 480,000 children seven to thirteen years old and 1,632,000 children fourteen to seventeen years old in the continental United States not enrolled in any school. The number of these children from rural areas was not reported separately. It is an important fact, however, that the Southern states, with only 30 per cent of the nation's total population, had 50 per cent of the nation's rural population and 65.5 per cent of the nation's children seven to thirteen years old not in school, and nearly 50 per cent of those fourteen to seventeen years old not in school. Evidently lack of school attendance is to a large extent a rural problem.[1]

Table 6. Predicted School Enrollment in 1959 to 1960, and Per Cent of Expected Increase 1947 to 1948 to 1959 to 1960, United States, Urban, Rural, Rural-nonfarm, and Rural-farm[a]
(All schools, public and private)

Population area	Expected enrollment, 1959–1960 (thousands)			Expected per cent of increase, 1948–1960		
	Elementary	High school	Total	Elementary	High school	Total
United States	26,160	7,886	34,046	43.2	25.5	38.7
Urban	13,277	4,695	17,972	46.5	38.0	44.2
Rural	12,883	3,191	16,074	39.8	10.9	32.1
Rural-nonfarm	8,011	1,641	9,652	79.5	23.9	66.9
Rural-farm	4,872	1,550	6,422	2.5	0.0	2.0

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Forecasts of Population and School Enrollments in the United States: 1948 to 1960.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 18. Washington, D.C., Feb. 14, 1949, p. 16. Distribution of urban, rural, rural-nonfarm and rural-farm made independently by the author.

Length of the School Year. From the beginning of public schools in the various states, the length of the annual school term has been less in rural than in urban areas. Exact data are not available prior to 1930, but references to school terms in various official reports appearing in the literature on rural schools all agree that the short school terms have for many decades nearly all been found in rural areas. In 1930 the average length of school term was twenty-four days longer in urban schools than in rural schools. Likewise the average number of days attended per year per pupil in urban schools exceeded the average number of days in rural schools by twenty-five days. By 1942, the last year for which data are available, the differences had decreased to fourteen and seven days respectively.[1] The trend is toward equal school terms and equal per cents of attendance for rural and urban schools.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 12. Washington, D.C., Feb. 16, 1948.

Rural Schools in Transition. The long succession of changes through which rural schools have gone since pioneer days is reflected in many ways. The evolution of the school building, how it looks, how it is arranged, and what is in it; the coming of the school bus; the growth of community school districts and county units, displacing the little district school and bringing about an organizational as well as a functional cooperation of farmers and their village and city neighbors in the maintenance and management of schools; a new type of professional administrative leadership for rural schools; better educated, better paid, and more secure teachers for rural schools; the advent of more adequate and more complicated systems of school finance, with its emphasis on equalization and funds derived from a variety of new sources of taxation; and expansion of state responsibility are all landmarks on the road of progress in better educational opportunities for rural children and youth.

Influences in Changing Rural Schools. What rural schools are today and what they are likely to become have been greatly influenced by several committees, commissions, authors, organizations, and institutions, whose investigations, reports, or other work have been widely recognized. At the risk of some important omissions, some of these contributions will be cited.

Influential Reports and Groups. The "Annual Reports"[2] of Horace Mann, twelve in number, 1837 to 1850, written as Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, will always remain memorable documents. Through them Mann did more than any other person "to establish in the minds of the American people the conception that education should be universal, nonsectarian, and free, and that its aim should be social efficiency, civic virtue, and character, rather that mere learning or the advancement of sectarian ends."[3] Through the reports and the *Common School Journal,*[4] Mann promoted schoolhouse hygiene, the introduction of school libraries, the development of high schools, the establishment of teacher education, the abolition of common-school districts, and the organization of a state school system.

---

[1] Blose, David T. *Statistics of Schools in Urban and Rural Areas.* Circular No. 231. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1945, p. 2.

[2] Mann, Horace. "Annual Reports of the Secretary of the Board of Education," *Life and Works of Horace Mann.* New York: Boston, Lee and Shepard, 1891. Vol. II, pp. 384–561. Vol. III. Vol. IV.

[3] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919, p. 167.

[4] Mann, Horace (ed.). *Common School Journal,* 1-10. Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon, and Webb, 1838–1848.

The work of Henry Barnard in Connecticut and Rhode Island, 1839 to 1855, was scarcely less influential than that of Horace Mann and in many respects was quite similar. His writings published in the *Connecticut Common School Journal*[1] and in the *American Journal of Education*,[2] both of which he founded and edited, constituted the greatest body of educational literature of that day.

The earliest report on rural education that was national in scope and interest was that made by the Committee on Rural Education, National Education Association, in 1897. The committee, composed of twelve well-known educators, presented facts on the status of rural education and proposed improvements and programs concerning finance, supervision (including the state and county superintendency), the supply and preservice and in-service training of teachers, the organization and content of the curriculum, and the organization of school districts.[3]

In 1909 the Country Life Commission, appointed by President Theodore Roosevelt, made its report on rural life in the United States, including an important section on rural education.[4] The commission, largely concerned with stemming the migrations from farms to cities, recommended a new type of rural schools "so redirected that they shall educate their pupils in terms of the daily life." They urged a new emphasis on training in agriculture and homemaking, indoctrination in the superiority of the rural way of life, the rural school as a community center, the special education of teachers for rural schools, the extension of high school facilities for rural youth, and the establishment of agricultural schools.

The report of the *Rural School Survey of New York State* (1922) was made under the auspices of the Committee of Twenty-one, so called because it was a cooperative committee composed of three members from each of seven farm or educational organizations. This was the earliest state survey of rural education and did much to direct attention to the principal deficiencies in rural education and the remedies for them. The chief results of the survey were the enactment in 1925 of the law for the revitalization of rural central-school districts and the provision of rural school services through the State Education Department.[1]

---

[1] Barnard, Henry, *et al. The Connecticut Common School Journal and Annals of Education*, 1–21. Hartford, Conn.: Case, Tiffany, and Burnham, 1838–1866.

[2] Barnard, Henry (ed.). *American Journal of Education*, 1–32. Hartford, Conn.: F. C. Brownell, 1855–1882.

[3] Sabin, Henry, Chairman. "Report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools." *Proceedings, 1897*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1897, pp. 385–583.

[4] U.S. Senate, 60th Congress, 2d Session. "Report of the Country Life Commission." Senate Document No. 75. Washington, D.C., 1909.

In 1944 the Council of Rural Education, New York, was organized, somewhat as the earlier Committee of Twenty-one, to study the needs for a new type of intermediate unit and to propose plans for organizing and financing it. Its studies and reports have already resulted in initial legislation and will doubtless have considerable influence in other states.[2]

At least four important statements of policy in rural education have had material influence in redirecting and formulating thinking in the field of rural education, Two of these statements appeared in the *Proceedings of the American Country Life Conference.* One appeared in 1933 under the title, "A National Policy for Rural Education,"[3] and the other in 1944 as "Educational Standards for Rural People."[4] A third statement was published by a committee of the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, in 1940 as *A Policy for Rural Education in the United States.*[5] The fourth statement is embodied in *The Proceedings of the First White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944.*[6] The ten reports of the discussion groups of this latter conference and the *Charter for the Education of Rural Children* issued by it constitute an effective statement of policy in rural education and may chart the course of rural education for several years.

Education for Rural Wisconsin's Tomorrow, issued by the Committee on Rural Community High Schools in 1946, is a significant descriptive statement, brief yet comprehensive, of what constitutes a desirable rural school program and organization and how to get them.[7]

[1] Works, George A., Chairman. *Rural School Survey of New York State.* Report of the Joint Committee on Rural Schools to the Rural School Patrons. Ithaca, N.Y. (Out of print.)

[2] Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas: A Progress Report on the Study of the Intermediate School District in New York State.* Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1946, pp. 82–84.

[3] Butterworth, Julian E., Chairman. "A National Policy for Rural Education." Round Table Report. *National Policies Affecting Rural Life.* Proceedings of the Sixteenth American Country Life Conference. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, pp. 52–62.

[4] McVey, Frank L., Chairman. "Report of the Committee on Educational Standards for Rural People." *Farm and Rural Life after the War.* Proceedings of the Twenty-fourth American Country Life Conference. Chicago: The Garrard Press, 1944, pp. 72–87.

[5] Cyr, Frank W., Chairman. *A Policy for Rural Education in the United States.* Report of the Committee on Program and Policy, Department of Rural Education National Education Association. Washington, D.C., 1940.

[6] National Education Association. *The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944.* Washington, D.C., 1945.

[7] Committee on Rural Community High Schools. *Education for Rural Wisconsin's Tomorrow.* Madison, Wis., 1946.

Two of the publications of the Educational Policies Commission, NEA, *Education for All American Youth*, 1944,[1] and *Education for All American Children*, 1948,[2] describe ideal school programs for high school and elementary school grades, respectively, in two hypothetical communities American City and Farmville, the latter being a rural village and its surrounding farm territory and people. These books probably present more vividly the philosophy and practice of a modern rural educative program than any other publications on the subject.

The National Commission on School District Reorganization, 1946 to 1948, through its report, *Your School District*, and a brochure in the nature of a summary of the report, *A Key to Better Education*, has shown the need for reorganization of schools and school districts, presented the standards and procedures for such reorganization, and proposed a program for state and local action.[3]

One of the most potent influences in the field of rural education for many years has been the Department of Rural Education and the Division of Rural Service (working jointly), National Education Association. The publications of the Department constitute one of the chief sources of literature in the field of rural education. The annual meetings of the Department, the regional conferences on rural life and education and the National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents of Schools sponsored by the Department and the Division, and the regional Conferences on Administrative Leadership of Community School Systems sponsored by the Department and Division jointly with the American Association of School Administrators—all these serve to build up the morale of professional personnel engaged in rural education, to enlist the cooperation of the lay public, and to promote the improvement of rural schools.

Universities and Colleges. Some of the institutions of higher learning, through their researches and training of professional leaders in rural education and of administrators and teachers for rural schools, have had a marked influence in the field of rural education. Among these institutions the School of Education of Cornell University, Teachers College of Columbia University, and George Peabody College for Teachers should certainly be mentioned.

---

[1] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. *Education for All American Youth.* Washington, D.C., 1944.

[2] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. *Education for All American Children.* Washington, D.C., 1948, Chap. I, pp. 11–51.

[3] Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District. The Report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948. National Commission on School District Reorganization. *A Key to Better Education.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1947.

In recent years the University of Chicago, the University of Georgia, Iowa State College, the University of Kentucky, Michigan State College, the University of Minnesota, the University of Nebraska, Oklahoma A. & M. College, the University of Texas, and the University of Wisconsin have been giving increasing emphasis to rural education.

Some of the state teachers colleges have made notable contributions to the education of teachers for rural schools and to the improvement of rural education, especially in their states and regions. Notable among these institutions are Iowa State Teachers College, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Western Michigan State Teachers College, Michigan State Normal College, and Central Michigan College of Education. In recent years a number of teachers colleges are beginning important work in rural education.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Make a study of a selected community, county, or other area with respect to the principal changes that have occurred since early settlement (or some selected date as far back as feasible) in the economic activities, social customs, and institutions of the people. Point out the implications of the changes observed for the public school program. (It is suggested that interviews with old people and the examination of old newspaper files and school records as well as available census or other official records be utilized.)

2. For a selected school or community, write a comparative description of the curriculum offered at various stages of development, beginning as far back as possible, up to the present. Emphasize and evaluate the objectives that seemed to be held, the courses offered, and the methods of instruction. (Utilize interviews as well as written records for sources of information.)

3. For a selected county or other easily identifiable local unit, trace the changes in population, school-age population, enrollments, and attendance since 1900 or some earlier date, and show how these factors are related. Show what has happened in the elementary grades and high school grades separately. Identify probable causes of changes. To what extent have rural-farm, rural-nonfarm, and urban children and youth attended the same schools? What are the implications of what is found in this respect as to what schools have responsibility in rural education?

4. For a selected county or other easily identifiable area, make a study of changes that have occurred in schools since 1900 with respect to: (*a*) school districts, (*b*) number and size of schools, (*c*) administrative services and personnel, (*d*) school buildings, (*e*) finance, and (*f*) the teachers.

5. What committees, commissions, private and public organizations, individuals, and higher institutions of learning in your state have influenced the program of rural education? Identify and evaluate their contributions.

6. For a selected county or other easily identifiable area, draw up the specifications for the public school program as you think it should be. Emphasize goals, philosophy, curriculum, services, personnel, physical facilities, organization, and finance.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brim, O. G. *Rural Education.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1923.

Butterworth, Julian E. *Principles of Rural School Administration.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926.

Carney, Mabel. *Country Life and the Country School.* Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson & Company, 1912.

Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919.

———. *Rural Life and Education.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Adjustments in Rural Education.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1937.

———. *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1938.

Foght, H. W. *The American Rural School.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1910.

Johnson, Clifton. *The Country School.* New York: The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1907.

National Education Association. *The White House Conference on Rural Education.* Washington, D.C., 1944.

Taylor, Carl C., *et al. Rural Life in the United States.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949. Ensminger, Douglas. "The Rural School and Education." Chap. 6, pp. 93–115. Taylor, Carl C. "The Evolution of American Rural Society." Chap. 2, pp. 13–36.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Farmers in a Changing World.* Yearbook of Agriculture. Washington, D.C., 1940. See especially the following chapters: Davis, Chester C. "The Development of Agricultural Policy Since the End of the World War," pp. 297–326. Edwards, Everett E. "American Agriculture—the First 300 Years," pp. 171–276. Elliot, F. F. "The Farmer's Changing World," pp. 103–110. Embree, Edwin R. "Education for Life," pp. 1033–1041. Genung, A. B. "Agriculture in the World War Period," pp. 277–296. Johnstone, Paul H. "Old Ideas versus New Ideas in Farm Life," pp. 111–170.

Wofford, Kate V. *Modern Education in the Small Elementary School.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon O. *Rural America Today—Its School and Community Life.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. See especially Chap. II, "Educational Conditions and Problems in Rural Areas," pp. 23–40; and Chap. IV, "Vitalizing the Educational Program," pp. 63–91.

Part Two

SOME SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUNDS OF RURAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER 2

SOME MAJOR TRENDS IN RURAL LIFE RELATED TO EDUCATION

Rural education, its goals and problems, can be fully understood only in the light of the principal social and economic conditions of the society of which it is a part. Hence special attention is given to some of the major trends in rural life that are associated with changes in rural education.

As a result of relatively high birth rates in rural areas, mechanization of agriculture, and improved methods of agricultural production, large migrations from rural-farm areas have occurred. Consequently, the rural-farm population has rapidly decreased while the urban and rural-nonfarm populations have increased. For three decades prior to the recent war and postwar periods the rural-farm population experienced sharp reductions in the number of children of school age, and there is little prospect that the number will increase in the foreseeable future. Net migrations from the farms to the cities may be expected to continue.

As a result of the increasing size of farms and of decreasing farm population, so far as density of population is concerned, isolation in some farm areas is now increasing. If, however, isolation is measured by travel time and means of communication, it is decreasing. Patterns of rural settlement greatly affect the degree of isolation and also influence school organization.

The types of agricultural production, the size of farms, and the classes of agricultural workers present a variety of educational problems not too often recognized or understood.

The shifting of population to rural-nonfarm areas has powerful implications for the schools. Occupational pursuits in rural areas have undergone such rapid changes that but few of the rural-nonfarm people and only two-thirds of the farm residents now engage in agricultural pursuits.

With all these changes the educational status of the rural people, though improving, remains relatively unfavorable.

These conditions and trends are the subject matter of this chapter.

The Changing Population. Less than a century ago about 85 per cent of the population of the United States was rural; in 1950 it was only 41.2 per cent rural. The increases in both urban and rural population have been very rapid, especially since 1910, but by far the most rapid increases have been in the urban areas. From 1910 to 1950 the urban population increased nearly 108 per cent, while the rural population increased only 34 per cent. All the increase, however, in the rural population occurred in the rural-nonfarm areas, that is, in incorporated places of less than 2,500 population. The farm population actually decreased from 31.4 million persons to only 23.6 million, a decrease of 33 per cent. During that same time the rural-nonfarm population increased more than 115 per cent (see Table 7).

The farm population has experienced considerable fluctuations. From 1910 to 1917 it increased; then with the First World War there came a sharp decline; with the close of the war and the return of the men from Europe, it increased again. After 1922 the steady decline set in again. In 1930 the great depression came, and for the sake of security people who had been displaced in industrial employment moved back to the farm, any kind of farm, any kind of place to live. After the crest of the depression had passed, the exodus from the farm to the city began again. The Second World War accelerated the rate until by 1945 the farm population reached a low of little more than 26 million, about 6 million less than in 1910. With the return of the men from the war, the farm population increased again to more than 27.3 million in 1947 and declined to less than 24 million in 1950.[1]

Regardless of the trends, the rural population is a sizable number and a very important proportion of the national total. In 1950 there were about 23.6 million people living on farms and 38.6 million living in rural-nonfarm areas. These numbers can be compared to the 88.5 million persons living in urban communities in that same year.

What will happen to the size of rural population in the future? If we can judge by what happened after the First World War and by the trends in agricultural production as a result of the use of machinery and newer methods of production, it seems highly probable that the farm population will decline still further while the rural-nonfarm population will increase perhaps even faster than the urban population, as it did between 1930 and 1950. It is important to note, however, that the increase in rural-nonfarm population will probably be associated with residence preference of nonagricultural people rather than by trends in agriculture or in the number of people dependent on agriculture.[1]

---

[1] Hagood, Margaret Jarman. "Dynamics of Rural Population." *Rural Life in the United States* (Carl C. Taylor, *et al.*). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949, Chap. 13, p. 242. See also U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1950 Census of Population, Preliminary Reports.* Series PC-7, No 1. Washington, D.C., Feb. 25, 1951.

Causes of Decline in Rural-farm Population. The decrease in rural-farm population is attributable primarily to an increase of about 300 per cent in production per agricultural worker since 1870. That increased productivity has been largely the result of certain new developments in farming:

1. Increased use of power, particularly the substitution of mechanical power for animal power, with the resultant release of feed for the production of milk and meat.

2. The increased use of fertilizers.

Table 7. Trend of Population Distribution, United States, Urban, Rural, Rural-nonfarm, and Rural-farm, 1910 to 1950[a]

Year	Urban		Rural		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm		Total
	Number (millions)	Per cent	Number (millions)	Per cent	Number (millions)	Per cent	Number (millions)	Per cent	Number (millions)
1910	42.6	46.3	46.4	53.7	18.0	19.6	31.4	34.1	92.0
1920	54.3	51.4	51.4	48.6	20.0	18.9	31.4	29.7	105.7
1930	69.0	56.2	53.9	43.8	23.7	19.3	30.2	24.5	122.8
1940	74.4	56.4	57.2	43.5	27.0	20.5	30.2	23.0	131.7
1947	83.9	59.0	58.2	41.0	30.9	21.8	27.3	19.2	142.1
1950	88.5	58.8	62.2	41.2	38.6	25.6	23.6	15.6	150.7

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Part 1, 1943, pp. 19–20; *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 19. Washington, D.C., Jan. 19, 1948, p. 1; *1950 Census of Population.* Preliminary Reports. Series PC-7, No. 1, Feb. 25, 1951. Series PC-3, No. 10, Feb. 16, 1951. Washington, D.C.

3. The transfer from farm to factory of some processing operations, as for example the production of butter and cheese and the curing of meats.

4. Advances in the control of plant and animal diseases.

5. Advances in plant breeding, as for example hybrid corn.

6. Improvements in the care and feeding of the farm animals.

7. Animal breeding with resultant increases in the production of meat, dairy products, and eggs per unit of feed consumed.

8. The shift from less productive to more productive crops per acre,

---

[1] Hagood, *op. cit.*, p. 220.

as for example shifting to alfalfa from hay and corn and from wheat and oats to corn, fruits, and vegetables.

There is little doubt that increases in agricultural production per worker will continue for many years and that a reduction will take place in the proportion of persons gainfully employed in agriculture at a rate not far different from that during the past century. Figure 2 shows graphically what the trends have been. Total farm production has advanced faster than the total population. At the same time the production per agricultural worker has increased about three-fourths as rapidly as the population, with a resulting decrease since 1910 in the total number of farm workers.

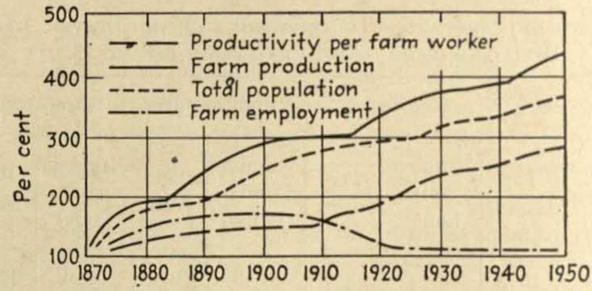

FIG. 2. Farm production, total population, farm employment, and productivity per farm worker, United States 1870 to 1950 index numbers (1870 = 100). U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and projections to 1950 by the author (approximations to show the general trends).

Regional Distribution of Rural and Urban Population. The problems of rural education in the United States are very unevenly distributed among various geographic regions. The highest concentration of rural population is to be found in the South Atlantic states, the West North Central states, the West South Central states, and the East South Central states. In these regions the rural-farm population constitutes from one-third to almost one-half the total population (see Table 8).

It is of great significance that about half the nation's school children are in rural areas. Moreover, about half these rural children are in the South, and two-thirds of these Southern children live in the rural-farm areas. The South is obviously our greatest reservoir of rural population.[1]

Regional Changes in Rural and Urban Population Distribution. Between 1940 and 1950 in the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Pacific regions the per cent of population living in areas classified as rural actually increased. This situation was largely the result of increases in rural-nonfarm population through decentralization of congested city population. Many of the people involved in the increase in rural population have not changed occupations; they have merely become commuters. Some of them engage in part-time subsistence farming.[1]

---

[1] Calculated by the author from the data in the Sixteenth Census of the United States.

TABLE 8. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN, RURAL-FARM, AND RURAL-NONFARM POPULATION, 1940, AND OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION, 1940 AND 1950, UNITED STATES BY REGIONS[a]

Region	Urban		Rural		Rural-nonfarm, 1940[b]	Rural-farm, 1940[b]
	1940	1950	1940	1950		
New England	76.1	74.1	23.9	25.9	17.6	6.3
Middle Atlantic	76.8	75.1	23.2	24.9	16.8	6.4
South Atlantic	38.8	42.4	61.2	57.6	27.3	33.9
East South Central	29.3	35.2	70.7	64.8	21.8	48.9
West South Central	39.8	53.0	60.2	47.0	21.6	38.6
East North Central	65.5	65.4	34.5	34.6	17.3	17 2
West North Central	44.3	49.9	55.7	50.1	21.1	34.6
Mountain	42.7	48.8	57.3	51.2	30.8	26.5
Pacific	65.3	62.8	34.7	37.2	22.1	12.6
United States	56.6	58.8	43.4	41.2	20.5	22.9

[a] States in the regions are as follows: New England: Conn., Maine, Mass., N.H., R.I., Vt.; Middle Atlantic: N.J., N.Y., Pa.; South Atlantic: Del., Fla., Ga., Md., N.C., S.C., Va., W. Va., D.C.: East South Central: Ala., Ky., Miss., Tenn.; West South Central: Ark., La., Okla., Tex.; East North Central: Ill., Ind., Mich., Ohio, Wis.; West North Central: Iowa, Kans., Minn., Mo., Nebr., N. Dak., S. Dak.; Mountain: Ariz., Colo., Idaho, Mont., Nev., N. Mex., Utah, Wyo.; Pacific: Calif., Oreg., Wash.

Data are calculated from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Part 1, p. 51. Also U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1950 Census of Population.* Preliminary Counts, Series PC-3, No. 10. Washington, D.C., Feb. 16, 1951.

[b] 1950 data by regions were not available at the time of publication of this book. In 1950 for the United States as a whole the distribution was 58.8 per cent urban, 25.6 per cent rural-nonfarm, and 15.6 per cent rural-farm (see Table 7).

Only in the East North Central states did the relative distribution of rural and urban population remain about the same in 1950 as in 1940. In the other regional divisions of states, including all the Southern states, the West North Central states, and the Mountain states, during that decade there were material decreases in the percentages of rural population and corresponding increases in the percentages of urban population.[2]

It is of great significance that during the decade 1940 to 1950 the most urban regions of the nation became more rural while the most rural regions became more urban.

---

[1] See Table 8.

[2] *Ibid.*

Changes in the Age Composition of the Population. Marked changes occurred in the age composition of the population between 1920 and 1950. In general the older the age group the greater was the increase in numbers. Only in the rural-farm areas was there a marked decrease in the number of children under five years old. The cities showed a slight decrease. But between 1940 and 1950 only the rural-farm areas showed a decrease in such children. Between 1920 and 1940 the number of old people increased greatly in all areas, but more than twice as fast in the urban as in rural areas. In fact the only material increase in rural-farm areas was among old people. Between 1940 and 1950 the trend was reversed in rural-farm areas. The greatest increase in all age groups has been in the urban areas. The facts as to trends for selected age groups are shown in Table 9.

The changes between 1930 and 1950 in the number of persons sixty-five years old and over per 1,000 persons twenty to sixty-four years old is shown in the accompanying tabulation.[1]

Year	Urban	Rural-nonfarm	Rural-farm
1930	80	124	108
1940	108	130	125
1950	137	157	149

Proportionate Number of Children of School Ages. An accepted measure of the comparative number of children to be supported and sent to school is the number five to seventeen years old per 1,000 persons in the ages of greatest economic productivity, twenty to sixty-four years old. The numbers of such persons in urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm areas in the United States and in each of nine geographical divisions of states are shown in Table 10.

Three things are of chief significance regarding the comparative numbers of school-age children: (1) The proportionate number of children in rural-farm areas was 72 per cent greater than in urban areas and 25 per cent greater than in rural-nonfarm areas. (2) A somewhat similar situation prevailed in each of the regional divisions. (3) There are considerable differences among the regions, more than 2 to 1 in some cases.

---

[1] Calculated from 1940 census data, and from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1950 Census of Population.* Preliminary Counts, Series PC-3, No. 10. Washington, D.C., Feb. 16, 1951.

The Changing Birth Rates.[1] The future of school enrollments will be determined by birth rates. A birth rate, for practical purposes, is measured by the number of children under five years of age per 1,000 women fifteen to forty-nine years old. In 1940[2] in the nation as a whole the number of such children was 281; in rural-farm areas, 409; in rural-nonfarm areas, 345; in urban areas, 219.

Among the regional divisions there were material differences in birth rates, the lowest being in the Northwest region with a ratio of only 224 and the highest in the South with a ratio of 334.

TABLE 9. PER CENT OF CHANGE IN TOTAL, URBAN, RURAL-FARM, AND RURAL-NONFARM POPULATION, UNITED STATES, BY SELECTED AGE GROUPS, BETWEEN 1920 TO 1940 AND 1940 TO 1950[a]

Age group[b]	Rural-farm		Rural-nonfarm		Total rural		Urban		Total	
	1920–1940	1940–1950	1920–1940	1940–1950	1920–1940	1940–1950	1920–1940	1940–1950	1920–1940	1940–1950
Under 5	−24.3	−10.6	+ 8.9	+96.3	−12.1	+15.3	− 5.1	+96.8	− 8.9	+54.8
20–24	+ 1.1	−41.1	+37.2	− 3.6	+15.7	−23.1	+ 32.4	+12.7	+24.9	− 2.3
40–44	+ 3.1	−15.5	+44.1	+16.8	+20.2	+ 0.6	+ 52.4	+24.6	+38.5	+14.4
60–64	+25.5	−10.1	+49.3	+15.1	+35.5	+ 1.6	+ 80.5	+43.2	+58.5	+25.8
70–74	+43.4	−15.6	+61.0	+29.4	+51.8	+ 7.1	+120.3	+53.3	+84.2	+33.3

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Part 1, pp. 22–27; also *1950 Census of Population.* Preliminary Reports, Series PC-7, No. 1, Washington, D.C., Feb. 25, 1941.

[b] These ages are fairly typical of decreases and increases of the various intervening age groups. In general the older the age group the greater was the percentage of increase. Rural population 25 to 39 years old decreased an average of about 5 per cent.

From 1910 to 1940 in the nation as a whole there was a reduction of nearly 34 per cent in the birth rate. Among the regions the reduction ranged from 27.5 per cent in the West to 37.6 per cent in the Northeast. The reductions were greatest in the urban areas, with 33 per cent; next greatest in the rural-nonfarm areas, with 30.3 per cent; and least in the rural farm areas, with 25.9 per cent.

Between 1940 and 1947, especially after the demobilization of the armed forces in 1945, there were great increases in birth rates throughout the nation. The cities experienced an increase of 47 per cent; the rural-nonfarm areas, 25 per cent; and the rural-farm areas, 12 per cent. The increases among the regions were 44 per cent in the West, 41 per cent in the Northeast, 31 per cent in the North Central, and 19 per cent in the South. In brief, the areas and regions that had the lowest birth rates in 1940 experienced the greatest increases between 1940 and 1947.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Differential Fertility, 1910 and 1940.* Washington, D.C., 1943, pp. 21, 22, 76–83. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 18. Washington, D.C., June 30, 1948, pp. 1, 15 (citation for all data in this subsection).

[2] 1950 data not available at time of publication of this book.

TABLE 10. NUMBER OF PERSONS 5 TO 17 YEARS OLD PER 1,000 PERSONS 20 TO 64 YEARS OLD, UNITED STATES BY REGIONS, RURAL-FARM, RURAL-NONFARM, AND URBAN, 1940[a]

Area[b]	Rural-farm	Rural-nonfarm	Urban	Rural and urban	Per cent rural of total population
United States	545[c]	426[c]	316[c]	384	43.4
South Atlantic	683	479	337	482	61.2
East South Central	655	488	346	513	70.7
West South Central	607	469	349	463	60.2
Mountain	527	464	358	435	34.7
West North Central	485	400	311	385	55.7
East North Central	464	398	310	348	34.5
Middle Atlantic	456	403	309	332	23.2
New England	446	379	370	349	23.9
Pacific	407	338	248	285	43.4

[a] Calculated from Sixteenth Census of the United States.

[b] Regions are ranked according to number of *rural-farm* persons 5 to 17 years old per 1,000 persons 20 to 64 years old in 1940. Data by regions for 1950 were not available at the time this manuscript was sent to the publisher.

[c] As of Apr. 1, 1950, the number of persons 5 to 17 years old per 1,000 persons 20 to 64 years old in the United States as a whole was as follows: rural-farm, 550; rural-nonfarm, 442; urban, 294; rural and urban, 358. The per cent of total population that was rural in 1950 was 41.2. The conclusion from the 1940 data are no doubt valid in 1951. Estimated from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1950 Census of Population.* Preliminary Reports, Series PC-7, No. 10. Washington, D.C., Feb. 25, 1951.

In 1947 the rural-farm areas had 459 children under five years of age per 1,000 women fifteen to forty-nine years old; the rural-nonfarm areas, 431; and the urban areas, 321. The differences were back to about what they had been in 1910. In 1940 the rural-farm areas had 80 per cent more children than the urban areas; in 1947 they had only 40 per cent more.

Furthermore, the regional differences were far less in 1947 than they were in either 1910 or 1940. The range was only from 321 in the Northeast to 398 in the West. City, village, farm, and the various states had become more nearly equal in birth rates.

It is not expected that the increased birth rates will continue at the high levels attained in the postwar period. Opinions differ as to whether the urban birth rates will revert to a level as low as that reached in the late depression. It is probable that birth rates may revert to about the 1940 level.

At any rate during the 1950's school enrollments can be expected to increase from 10 to 20 per cent over 1947 for rural-farm children,[1] from 20 to 25 per cent for rural-nonfarm children, and from 40 to 50 per cent for urban areas.

Population Migrations. For many decades there has been a continual stream of migrants from rural to urban areas. While many people move from the farm to the village or city and back again, there has been a net migration each decade to the cities. In times of prosperity the migrations are greatest; in times of depression, as in the early 1930's, the net migration is back to the farm.

The net migrations from farms for the decades since 1920 have been as follows:

1920–1929	6,300,000
1930–1939	3,300,000
1940–1944	5,079,000

By April of 1947 about half the wartime loss had been regained, but the number of persons living on farms was still about 8 per cent less than in 1940.[2]

There are considerable migrations among urban, rural-farm, and rural-nonfarm areas. In general and depending upon the region, from 36 to 56 per cent of the migrants who were living on farms in 1935 were living in cities in 1940; from 20 to 27 per cent had moved to villages; and from 23 to 36 per cent had moved to cities. Of the migrants from rural-nonfarm areas about 50 per cent had gone to cities, about 40 per cent to other rural-nonfarm areas, and about 10 per cent to farms. Of the urban migrants about 64 per cent moved to other cities; about 27 per cent to villages; and about 9 per cent to farms. The total number of all these migrants was 15 million, 6 million of whom were from rural areas.[3]

---

[1] These percentages are not incompatible with data shown in Table 6, Chapter 2. The data here refer to enrollments of *children* resident in rural-farm areas. The data in Table 6 refer to enrollments in *schools* located in rural-farm areas.

[2] Baker, O. E., and Taeuber, Conrad. "Some Trends of Rural Population of Significance to Education." *Rural Schools for Tomorrow.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1945, Chap. 5, pp. 69–70.

Hagood, *op. cit.*, p. 244.

[3] Brunner, Edmund de S. "Internal Migration." *Rural Sociology,* Vol. 13, No. 1, March, 1948, p. 13.

Since over half the migrants from the farms were eighteen to forty-four years old, the most highly productive ages, the cities received a great economic gain.

Thus many school children change from one environment to another—that is, from rural to urban and vice versa—a matter of considerable educational significance. Educational opportunities are needed to aid in successful social participation of those who remain on the farms, and to facilitate later adjustment and adaptation to urban life of the farm youth who migrate. Vocational training, guidance, and placement programs seem to hold the answer to some of the problems arising from migration.

Factors Affecting Rural Isolation. It is generally recognized that relative isolation is one of the distinguishing characteristics of rural America. During the westward expansion of the nation, isolation actually increased. Later it decreased, especially in the areas where villages developed and in suburban areas. Now as a result of increasing size of farms and of decreasing farm population, so far as distance is concerned, isolation in some farm areas is increasing again. But with modern means of transportation, distance, within limits, is a poor measure of isolation.

Density of Rural Population.[1] In areas near larger urban and metropolitan places, density of population is increasing. In other areas the tendency is toward greater sparsity of population, brought about by increased size of farm and decreased number of children per family.

The highest concentration of rural people (50 or more per square mile and largely rural-nonfarm) are in the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts. With the exception of West Virginia these states have high percentages of urban and rural-nonfarm population. Elsewhere in the United States, the density of rural population is greatest in the Southeastern states, and lowest in the Rocky Mountain states, Oregon, and the western half of the Great Plains states.

The highest concentrations of farm population are in the Southeastern states, particularly Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, the eastern border of Arkansas, the northwestern part of Mississippi, and the northern part of Alabama. Except for the rich alluvial lands along the Mississippi River south of Cairo, Illinois, these areas have relatively poor land, high birth rates, small farms, and low incomes.

Patterns of Rural Settlement.[2] The density of rural farm population is closely related to the pattern of settlement, which in turn is usually related to the type of agriculture. The pattern of settlement has also been determined to some extent by the tradition and cultural origin of the first settlers.

---

[1] Hagood, Margaret Jarman. "Rural Population Characteristics." *Rural Life in the United States* (Taylor, *et al.*). Chap. 12, pp. 221–226.

[2] Taylor, Carl C. "The Evolution of American Society." *Rural Life in the United States* (Taylor, *et al.*). Chap. 2, pp. 32–36.

Where the topography is even and the roads are straight and evenly spaced, something approaching a *checkerboard pattern* of settlement prevails. The distances between the residences depend altogether on the size of farms. In the corn belt, where the 160-acre farm prevails, the average distances between houses is ½ mile; in the large wheat-farm areas it is 1 mile, and in the intensive farming areas it may be less than a ¼ mile. In this latter case the residences are close enough together to be almost line villages.

In many areas of the country the topography is broken, the quality of the land is not even, and the roads are not in a symmetrical pattern. In such cases the farm residences, even though located on the roads and on individual farms, do not form either a checkerboard or line-settlement pattern, but a scattered or dispersed pattern. Hard-surfaced roads, telephones, and electric lines tend to pull farm residences toward the main lines of transportation, but at the same time by lessening the isolation of farm residences they increase the likelihood of retaining the pattern of *dispersed* settlement.

In two areas of the United States, two types of the *cluster-village* settlement prevail. One is the Spanish-American village type imported from old Mexico and found in the Southwest. These settlements are located along streams where small irrigated lots of a few acres furnish subsistence. The other type is the Mormon villages of Utah and southern Idaho. These cluster villages are the product of a cohesive, cooperative religious society, an adaptation to irrigation farming, and, in the early days, were built partly as a protection against the Indians. As originally planned each village was to be a tract 1 mile square divided into 10-acre blocks, each of which was to be divided into ½-acre lots. This plan would provide for 1,000 families, the church and school grounds, park, and streets. This plan has not been fully conformed to, but where the farmers do not live in the village, they live along the highways leading out of the village.

The line type of settlement is best exemplified by some of the French settlements in Louisiana where the residences are strung out along the roads and bayous. Where these settlements are dense, they are line villages with trade centers interspersed among the residences. Such settlements are found both among individual farm owners and on the plantations.

The patterns of settlement are relatively permanent, and both because they are related to type of farming and because they are deep-rooted in tradition and cultural pattern of living they do not seem likely to undergo fundamental changes.

These patterns of settlement have vitally affected the type of rural school organization and the size of rural schools, and they still have a powerful influence on what people are willing to do in the reorganization of their schools.

Transportation and Communication. Prior to 1909 the development of roads had been a slow, laborious process. Rural America had remained in isolation, and schools had to be within walking distance of the homes of the people. Finally, the Congress of the United States discovered that under the constitutional authority to establish post roads it could use public money to build roads and highways. Then came the automobile made by Henry Ford as the common man's carriage.

Improved roads and motor vehicles have for practical purposes eliminated the chief disadvantages of rural isolation. They have caused the decline of thousands of neighborhoods and communities and have resulted in establishing or strengthening thousands of others. They have made possible the transportation of over 5 million pupils, mostly rural, daily to better schools. Pupil transportation has made possible a revolution in the organization of rural and village schools, a revolution that is rapidly taking place.

The telephone, the radio, and electricity for home and farm use have all contributed to lessening rural isolation, for lack of communication with neighbors and people in other communities was formerly one of the chief earmarks of isolation. All these facilities have influenced what people expect and want of the schools and what and how the schools teach.

Some Effects of Changes in Agricultural Production. Changes in agricultural production methods have produced profound changes in the lives of the people affected. They have powerful implications for the organization and administration of schools to serve rural people and for the modification of the curriculum, especially in the high schools.

Production per Worker. In recent years the productive efficiency of agricultural workers has kept pace with that of workers in industry. A decreasing labor force has supplied an increasing amount of food and fiber. In 1947 agricultural production per worker was 45 per cent greater, on the average, than in 1935 to 1939 and was about twice what it was in 1910. With a reduction of 17 per cent in the labor force between 1910 and 1947, while the population increased over 50 per cent, the food and fiber produced was increased by 70 per cent. The chief factor in this increased productivity, but not the only one, has been mechanization of production.[1]

---

[1] Ducoff, Louis J., and Hagood, Margaret Jarman. "Occupational Patterns of

Between 1940 and 1945 the number of tractors on farms increased by 50 per cent, and from 1945 to 1947 it increased by another 80 per cent.[1] These and other machines will displace labor and bring about further reductions in the number of agricultural workers. With a high level of industrial employment, the resulting reduction in the number of agricultural workers will be good for the national economy through more efficient use of the labor force and the diversion of farm people from unproductive farms.

An important result of increased mechanization and use of technology in agriculture has been an increased demand for skilled labor on the farms. It has been observed that the operators of farms become more interested in trained and skilled workers and more willingly support schools for training them. Unskilled common labor is of less and less use.

Types and Size of Farms. Professor Warren in Chapter 4 points out the great variations in the size of farms and classifies the farms as large-scale commercial farms, family-size commercial farms, and subsistence farms. Increased mechanization has been bringing about an increase in the size of commercial farms, and the decentralization of population around urban areas has brought about an increase in part-time and subsistence farming on small farms. In 1945 one-fourth of the farms grew less than $600 worth of products while another one-fourth grew $3,833 worth or more. Fifty per cent of the farms grew 93 per cent of all agricultural products sold, and there is no doubt that these same farms could have grown the other 7 per cent of commercial agricultural products needed. Subsistence farms, however, were important since 14 per cent of their produce was consumed by the families living on them.[2]

The ideal of American leaders in agriculture has been to strengthen the family-size farm. In 1945 families living on such farms constituted 49 per cent of the farm population, operated 48 per cent of the farms and 42 per cent of the nation's farm acres, and produced 47 per cent of the value of the nation's farm production. The subsistence farmers constituted 38 per cent of the farm population, held 14 per cent of the farm acres, and produced only 7.5 per cent of the gross value of farm production.[3]

The schools evidently have not only the job of training skilled full-

---

Rural Population." *Rural Life in the United States* (Taylor, *et al.*). Chap. 14, pp. 247–248.

[1] *Ibid.*

[2] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1945 Census of Agriculture.* Washington, D.C., Vol. II, Report 2, Table C, p. xlvii.

[3] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *Long-range Agricultural Policy.* Washington, D.C., March, 1948, p. 59.

time operators but also a sizable job of providing training needed by subsistence farmers who should engage in various types of part-time employment off the farm.

Classes of Agricultural Workers. Agricultural workers are usually classified as owners, tenants, hired workers, and sharecroppers (the last being found almost exclusively in the South). In 1945, of the 6.75 million farm families in the nation more than 3 million were tenants, that is, they did not own the land they tilled. Some tenants operate large farms, own ample equipment, and obtain relatively large incomes. Some of these farmers are tenants by choice, preferring to place their capital in equipment and livestock rather than land. Some tenants are relatives of landlords and look forward to inheriting the land they occupy. Others are tenants by necessity, and these have low incomes and low standards of living. Many of them move frequently; their children attend school irregularly and have scant opportunity for education or for becoming integrated members of a community.

Of the 7.6 million persons classified as workers in agriculture, about 2.4 million are hired farm workers.[1] These workers have long received less than 40 per cent as much average wages as industrial workers and usually not more than 60 per cent as much as the average income of all workers engaged in agriculture.[2]

Formerly, it was the accepted ideal that a man could begin as a hired hand, become a tenant, and by thrift and good management become a farm owner. This process, known as "the agricultural ladder," no longer exists to an appreciable degree.

The general trend of tenancy was upward from 1880 to 1940. During that time the number of owners per 1,000 males twenty years old and over gainfully employed on farms decreased by 133, that is, from 547 to 414. Tenants and hired workers increased by 86 and 47 respectively.[3] Between 1940 and 1947 the rate of tenancy declined. The per cent of tenant-operated farms dropped from 39 to 27 per cent.[4] It was not so much that farm ownership increased as it was that farm tenants left the farm or became hired workers.[5]

The hired farm workers are the least favored large class of wage earners in the nation. Of these hired laborers the seasonal workers, who probably make up half the hired farm laborers in the country, are at the bottom of the heap, especially the 600,000 or more who are migratory.[1] The difficulties of the beet workers in the Lake, Mountain, and Pacific Coast states, of the field hands of the great California valleys, the vegetable workers of New Jersey, the citrus workers of California and Florida, and the cotton, fruit, strawberry, and truck-crop workers of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas have become among the most depressing economic stories in American life.

---

[1] Ducoff, Louis J. *Wages of Agricultural Labor in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, September, 1944, p. 28.

[2] *Ibid.*, Table D.

[3] Taylor, Carl C., Ducoff, Louis J., and Hagood, Margaret Jarman. *Trends in the Tenure Status of Farm Workers in the United States since 1800.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, July, 1948, p. 1.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 23–24.

Shifts in Residence. It has been shown elsewhere that on the average half or more of the rural-farm youth can be expected to move to urban communities. It has also been pointed out that the most rapidly expanding population in most parts of the country is in the rural-nonfarm areas. Considerable proportions of rural-nonfarm youth can also be expected to migrate to cities or at least engage in urban or industrial occupations.

The situation is further complicated by the fact that increasing numbers of city workers are moving to rural areas, especially to those adjoining large urban centers. Although these people live in a farming area and are usually referred to as rural residents, they are not engaged in farming except as a hobby or as a partial means of subsistence.

Thus the rural school has the job of educating some children and youth who in adulthood will live in a rural environment but not engage in farming, some who will engage in agricultural pursuits, and others who will migrate to the cities. Under these circumstances the schools have the jobs of providing children with the skills and knowledge necessary for earning a living, whether in farming or in rural-nonfarming occupations or in industry, and of stimulating and developing leadership for participation as citizens in community affairs. In fact one of the principal jobs of the school in these communities composed of people from varied environments, who often do not know each other and lack common understandings and objectives, is to build community morale and aid in establishing community purposes and programs. The situation calls for guidance and counseling services beyond what has been usually provided.

The Changing Rural Occupations. The proportions of persons gainfully employed in various occupations in the United States have undergone radical changes for several decades. In 1870 over 53 per cent of the labor force was engaged in agriculture; in 1910 only 31 per cent; and in 1947 only 14 per cent. Thus between 1870 and 1947 the proportion of the labor force engaged in *nonagricultural* pursuits changed from 47 per cent to

---

[1] Ducoff, Louis J. "Farm Laborers." *Rural Life in the United States* (Taylor, *et al.*). P. 289.

86 per cent.[1] During that time the proportion of the population that was urban changed from 26 per cent to 59 per cent.

It is evident from the statistics just cited that many persons living in rural areas have not been engaged in agricultural pursuits. In fact the number of rural persons engaged in agriculture has been on the decline for many years, not only in rural-nonfarm areas but in the rural-farm areas as well. In short, occupations of rural people have become more diversified.

In 1930 only 14 per cent of the persons in farm areas gainfully employed were engaged in nonagricultural pursuits; in 1940 over 22 per cent were thus employed; and by 1947 the per cent had climbed to 33.3. In 1930 about 3.5 per cent of people who lived in urban and other nonfarm areas were engaged in agricultural occupations, but in 1947 only 1.5 per cent were thus engaged (almost all being rural-nonfarm residents).[2]

In 1947 only two out of three gainfully employed persons in rural-farm areas and not more than one in twenty in rural-nonfarm areas were employed in agriculture.[3] Furthermore, of the persons engaged in agriculture many work at some other employment some time during the year. In 1929 about 11.5 per cent of all farm operators worked 100 or more days off the farm; in 1944 about 18.5 per cent did so.[4] Not only do fewer people living on the farms engage in agriculture at all, but more and more of those who are so engaged are working a part of the time at other occupations.

These facts give some idea of the extent to which schools for rural children and youth have the job of educating for pursuits other than agriculture. Just how extensive that job is and what the occupational expectations may be are indicated by the data shown in Table 11. For example, among employed people living on farms about 8 in 100 in 1940 were engaged in trade or service occupations, more than 3 in 100 were engaged in professional or governmental services, 6 in 100 were engaged in manufacturing of some sort, and 78 in 100 were engaged in agriculture. Of the rural-nonfarm employed workers only 7.4 per cent were engaged in agriculture while nearly 1 in 4 was employed in manufacturing, nearly 4 in 10 were engaged in trade or service occupations, and nearly 7 in 100 were engaged in professional or governmental service. These are proportions, except for agriculture, not too far different from those found in urban areas. It is also of interest to note that as many workers residing in rural-nonfarm areas were engaged in mining, forestry, and fishing as in agriculture. The same was true with respect to construction work. In fact the rural-nonfarm areas had a higher proportion of their employed people engaged in construction than did the urban areas. The rural-nonfarm areas had 56 per cent of all the nation's workers engaged in mining operations, 43.3 per cent of the cotton-textile workers, and 43.5 per cent of all laborers and 26 per cent of all operatives in the lumber, furniture, and lumber-products industries.[1]

---

[1] Ducoff and Hagood, *op. cit.*, p. 246.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 248.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 250.

TABLE 11. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WORKERS AMONG MAJOR INDUSTRIES, UNITED STATES, RURAL AND URBAN RESIDENCE, 1940[a]

Type of industry	Rural-farm	Rural-nonfarm	Urban	United States
All industries	100	100	100	100
Agriculture	77.8	7.4	1.0	18.4
Mining, forestry, and fishing	1.4	7.2	1.1	2.2
Construction	2.1	6.8	4.8	4.6
Manufacturing	6.1	24.1	29.1	23.4
Trade and service	8.1	38.5	48.9	38.4
Professional and government	3.2	13.7	13.2	11.2
Not reported	1.3	2.3	1.9	1.8

[a] Ducoff, Louis J., and Hagood, Margaret Jarman. "Occupational Patterns of Rural Population." *Rural Life in the United States* (Carl C. Taylor, *et al.*). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949, p. 261.

These data indicate the variety of vocational and occupational educational opportunities that should be provided in high schools serving rural youth.

What has been said, however, about the diversity of occupations in rural areas should not obscure the need for vocational agricultural education for rural youth. While it is true that in the decade prior to the war enrollments in vocational agricultural courses increased greatly, it is also true that there have not been nearly enough departments nor enough students enrolled in vocational agriculture. In the ten-year period prior to the war the number of departments increased from 4,513 to 9,059, or 101 per cent; and the all-day unit enrollment increased from 154,269 to 340,540, or 121 per cent; part-time enrollments, from 10,792 to 49,997, or 363 per cent; evening or adult-farmer class enrollments, from 87,138 to 214,582, or 146 per cent. If, however, graduates of vocational courses in agriculture were to replace the farm operators who retire or die each year, there should be about a million farm youth enrolled in all-day classes. Only 34 per cent of that number were enrolled in 1942, the peak

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 259.

CHAPTER 3

RURAL INCOME AND ITS SOCIAL EFFECTS

For many decades it has been a matter of common knowledge that the income status of rural people has been unfavorable. The extent of the differences between rural and urban incomes, the effects of low income and its wide fluctuations on the standards of living of rural people, the relationship between the amount and distribution of rural and urban incomes, the effects of private and governmental policies on rural income, and the kind of policies and programs needed to improve the income status of rural people are matters not so well understood. These problems and others releated to them, the road to improvement, and the part education should play are the subject matter of this chapter.

Farm and Nonfarm Incomes. The income of the farm people has traditionally been much less than that of the nonfarm residents. Since 1910 the proportion of the national income going to farm people has ranged from less than 8 per cent in 1932 to nearly 20 per cent in 1919. In these two years the farm people were about 25 and 30 per cent, respectively, of the national population (Table 12).

Perhaps the best way to see the relative positions of farm and nonfarm persons is by a comparison of per capita incomes. In 1910 the per capita income of persons living on farms was about 40 per cent of the income of persons not living on farms; in 1919 it had risen to about 60 per cent; in 1921 it had dropped to about 24 per cent; in 1929 it had risen to about 37 per cent; in 1932 it had fallen back to 25 per cent; and by 1947 it had risen to an all-time high of nearly 59 per cent (see Table 12).

Two facts are noteworthy about farm income: (1) Prior to the Second World War, except in 1919, the per capita income of persons living on farms was considerably less than half that of persons not living on farms. In fact, on the basis of income from agriculture it never reached as much as 45 per cent. (2) The income of persons on farms has fluctuated to a much greater extent than the income of persons not on farms. The income of farm people has risen to higher points and fallen to lower depths than the incomes of nonfarm people. Thus it is evident that there are two major problems with respect to farm income. The first is how to increase the amount of income; the second is how to make income more stable and dependable.

Table 12. Comparative Income of Farm and Nonfarm Population, United States, Selected Years, 1910 to 1947[a]

Year	Net income[b] to persons			Per capita net income to persons			Farm population as per cent of total
	On farms (millions)	Not on farms (millions)	Per cent to farm persons	On farms	Not on farms	Per cent farm is of nonfarm	
1910–1914 av.	$ 5,998	$ 28,830	17.2	$186	$ 461	40.3	34.0
1910	6,177	26,887	18.7	193	453	42.6	35.1
1919	12,870	53,267	19.5	416	721	57.7	29.5
1921	5,267	53,066	9.0	166	701	23.7	29.5
1929	9,357	76,597	10.9	309	842	36.7	24.9
1932	3,172	38,148	7.7	102	408	25.0	24.9
1934	4,901	41,016	10.7	153	436	37.4	24.5
1935–1939 av.	7,540	58,779	11.4	243	603	40.3	24.1
1937	8,457	63,099	11.8	273	650	42.0	23.3
1938	6,997	59,415	10.5	228	602	37.9	23.7
1942	14,564	107,821	11.9	502	1028	48.8	21.7
1943	17,963	133,296	11.9	674	1223	55.1	19.7
1947	23,448	167,351	12.3	851	1454	58.5	19.3

[a] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *The Farm Income Situation.* FIS-100. Washington, D.C., August-September, 1948, pp. 14–15. Estimates of actual income prior to 1942, except average for 1935–1939. Official data for 1935–1939, 1942, 1943, and 1947.

[b] Prior to 1942 the official reports showed only the income from agriculture for persons on farms. The other income of persons on farms was credited to persons not on farms. A correction has been made in the data of this table by adding 38.8 per cent (the per cent reported for 1935–1939) to income to persons on farms and subtracting that amount from income of persons not on farms for all years prior to 1942, except that for 1919 the per cent used was 30.3 (the per cent reported for 1942).

Income of Farm and Nonfarm Workers. The comparative income status of farm workers and industrial workers to a considerable extent reflects the differences in rural and urban incomes. The position of farm workers has steadily improved since 1940. Whereas the average annual income of all farm workers was only about 42 per cent of that of industrial workers in 1940, it was 82 per cent in 1947.[1] However, the hired farm workers at least through 1943 made very slow progress. So far as income is concerned they have been among the most neglected of American workers. Up to 1943 the average annual income of hired farm workers was less than one-third that of industrial workers and not more than half as much as that of other farm workers.[1]

---

[1] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *The Farm Income Situation.* FIS-100. Washington, D.C., August-September, 1948, Table 6, p. 17.

In 1940 the average annual income of hired farm workers was $362; of all farm workers, $523; and of industrial workers, $1,149.[2] In 1947 the average for all farm workers was $2,030, as compared to $2,500 for industrial workers.[3]

Economic Reason for Low Agricultural Income. Perhaps the chief reasons that agricultural income in proportion to population for a long time has been much less than the income of the population engaged in nonagricultural pursuits are the following: (1) Agriculture is highly competitive. Since most of the people engaged in it operate through small units, it is difficult, in fact perhaps impossible, without governmental intervention, to regulate the supply of agricultural products. The farmer must keep going regardless of the condition of the market. In large measure, this condition does not apply to industry. (2) Until during the period of the Second World War, there has at all times been an oversupply of farm labor and an insufficient rate of expansion of industry to take up the excess supply of farm population.[4] (3) There is a dearth of sources of income supplementary to agriculture for the rural people. An expansion of industrial facilities related to agriculture in rural communities as a means of both full-time and part-time employment is needed. This need, of course, calls for education and training geared to this type of occupational activity.

Distribution of Income among Families. The average income of a group of persons is of less significance than the distribution within the group. Likewise a comparison of distributions of incomes within two or more groups is highly indicative of the relative income status of persons within the respective groups.

Farm families have a higher concentration of their number with annual incomes of less than $1,000 and a lower concentration with annual incomes of $4,000 or more than either rural-nonfarm or urban families. On the average the farm families have had approximately twice as high a proportion of their numbers with annual incomes of less than $1,000 as their rural-nonfarm or urban neighbors. On the other hand the farm families have had only about one-half as many of their numbers with annual incomes of $4,000 or more as have the urban families. As compared to rural-nonfarm families the proportion of this income class is only 65 per cent as great (see Table 13).

---

[1] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *Agricultural Outlook Charts.* Washington, D.C., November, 1944.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 6.

[3] U.S. Department of Agriculture. *The Farm Income Situation.* P. 17.

[4] Schultz, Theodore W. *Agriculture in an Unstable Economy.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945, pp. 91–94.

TABLE 13. PER CENT DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY TOTAL INCOME, UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL-FARM, and RURAL-NONFARM POPULATION, 1945[a] AND 1947[b]

Total money income	Farm		Rural-nonfarm		Urban		Total	
	1945[a]	1947[b]	1945[a]	1947[b]	1945[a]	1947[b]	1945[a]	1947[b]
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Less than $1,000	38.4	31.0	12.1	17.7	13.5	13.9	13.5	17.6
$1,000–$1,999	28.6	25.2	24.1	18.5	20.5	15.5	20.5	27.8
$2,000–3,999	24.8	26.5	45.5	42.5	42.8	40.7	45.8	38.1
$4,000–5,999	5.6	9.5	13.3	14.5	15.7	19.0	15.7	16.5
$6,000–9,999	2.0	5.6	4.1	5.3	6.1	8.2	6.1	7.6
$10,000 and over	0.6	2.2	0.9	1.5	1.4	2.7	1.4	2.4
Median	$1,400	$1,747	$2,409	$2,566	$3,004	$2,972	$2,685	$2,620
Lowest 25 per cent	648	801	1,594	1,935	2,138	1,722	1,425	1,628
Highest 25 per cent	2,360	3,221	3,562	3,854	4,956	4,940	4,119	3,800

[a] 1945 data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Family and Individual Money Income in the United States.* Series P, No. 22 (for 1945), and Series P-60, No. 5 (for 1947). Washington, D.C.

[b] 1947 data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Family and Individual Money Income in the United States, 1947.* Series P-60, No. 5, Washington, D.C., Feb. 7, 1949, Table 1, p. 15.

So long as nearly one-third of the farm families receive less than $1,000 per year, there is much improvement needed from some source.

Distribution of Income among the States. An aspect of the distribution of income important to the financing of schools is the differences among the states in incomes per capita. In the depression period the ratio of per capita income in the highest state to that in the lowest state was 4.4 to 1; in 1946 the ratio was still 3.7 to 1. In general the states with the highest proportion of farm population have had for many years the lowest per capita incomes.[1] There has been a large increase in per capita income since 1939, the increases being from a national average of $524 for the period 1929 to 1933, to $604 for the period 1939 to 1941, to $1,212 in 1946.[1] The greatest increases have occurred in the most rural states. Of the 33 states that exceeded the national average increase in per capita income between the period 1929 to 1933 and 1946, all but two, Florida and Utah, exceeded the national average percentage of farm population. In general the greatest increases occurred in the Southeast and the Northwest regions.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Survey of Current Business.* Washington, D.C., June, 1943; *National Income Supplement to Survey of Current Business.* Washington, D.C., June, 1947. Data quoted here were derived from these sources.

In spite of the substantial increases in income of the agricultural states, the differences still remain of considerable amounts in favor of the states with the highest proportions of urban population. For example, in 1929 to 1931 the per capita income of Mississippi was $198; by 1946 it had reached $555. In contrast, the per capita income of New York was $871 in 1929 to 1931 and $1,633 in 1946.[2]

In 1946 the 12 states with the highest per cents of farm population had an average per capita income of $813, as compared to $1,411 in the 12 states with the lowest per cents of farm population. The first group, however, had increased 218 per cent over the average per capita income for 1929 to 1933, as compared to an increase of 104 per cent for the latter group of states.[2]

Income and Children. Not only is income among the states and regional divisions of states greatly different in per capita amounts, but from the standpoint of financial support of public schools, what is equally significant is the fact that the relative number of children in proportion to the adult population is also greatly different and different in reverse order. That is, in general, the lower the per capita income is in a state or region, the greater is the proportionate number of children of school ages. It is also true that the farm people have lower incomes and proportionately greater numbers of children than nonfarm people. These statements are clearly substantiated by the data in Tables 14 and 15.

Income and children are not concentrated in the same areas. In the nation as a whole in 1944 the nonfarm areas had 71 per cent of the children and 90.7 per cent of the income, while the farm people had 29 per cent of the children and only 9.3 per cent of the income.

Regional Differences. Among the regional divisions of the United States there are very significant differences in the proportionate number of persons of school ages, and between the per cents of the nation's children of school ages and the per cents of the national income found within them.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Survey of Current Business*, and *National Income Supplement to Survey of Current Business*.

[2] *Ibid.*

As to per cents of income and of children, the differences among the regions are also of considerable proportions. The extremes are in the East South Central states, where there are about 10 per cent of the nation's children five to seventeen years old and only about 5 per cent of the national income, and in the Pacific states, where there are only about 6 per cent of the nation's children five to seventeen years old and nearly 12 per cent of the national income. Thus, the income of the first group of states would have to be four times as great as it is if the ability to support school were to be equal in the two regions (Table 14).

Within the regional divisions there are even greater differences between farm and nonfarm areas with respect to children and income than *among* the regions (Table 14). For example, in the Middle Atlantic states the nonfarm people had 17.7 per cent of the nation's school-age children and 23.5 of the national income, but the farm people of these states had

TABLE 14. DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE, 1940, AND OF INCOME, 1944, UNITED STATES BY REGION

Area	Per cent of national total					
	Farm and nonfarm		Nonfarm		Farm	
	Children, 5–17 years[a]	Income[b]	Children, 5–17 years[a]	Income[b]	Children 5–17 years[a]	Income[b]
United States	100	100	71	90.7	29	9.3
New England	5.95	7.10	5.52	6.92	0.43	0.18
Middle Atlantic	19.11	24.00	17.65	23.47	1.46	0.52
South Atlantic	15.51	11.15	9.04	9.88	6.47	1.27
East South Central	9.84	4.73	4.33	3.88	5.51	0.85
West South Central	11.27	7.47	6.18	6.31	5.09	1.16
East North Central	18.84	22.35	14.97	20.75	3.87	1.60
West North Central	10.10	8.42	6.00	6.39	4.11	2.04
Mountain	3.40	2.84	2.36	2.28	1.04	0.56
Pacific	5.93	11.97	4.97	10.83	0.96	1.14

[a] 1940 data are calculated from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population*. Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Parts 1–7.

[b] Calculated from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1949*. Washington, D.C., 1950, p. 272; and from U.S. Department of Commerce. *Current Survey of Business*. Washington, D.C., August, 1945, Table 4, p. 15.

1.5 per cent of the nation's school-age children and only 0.5 of the national income, a ratio of 3 to 1. In the East South Central states even the nonfarm people had a higher percentage of children than of income, but the difference was not great, 4.3 per cent as compared to 3.9 per cent. When, however, the facts concerning the farm people of this region are examined, the situation is quite different. The farm people have 5.5 per cent of the children and less than 1 per cent of the income.

Income per Farm and Nonfarm Child. As to the income per child of school age, it is not surprising, in light of what has already been pointed out, that the amount per nonfarm child is almost four times as great as the amount per farm child, $6,419 as compared to $1,621. Among the regional divisions of states the ratio of income per nonfarm child to income per farm child ranges from a ratio of 1.8 to 1.0 in the Mountain states to a ratio of 5.8 to 1 in the East South Central states (Table 15).

TABLE 15. INCOME PER FARM AND NONFARM CHILD, 1944, AND NUMBER OF DOLLARS PER NONFARM CHILD FOR EACH DOLLAR PER FARM CHILD, 1944 AND 1929, UNITED STATES BY REGIONS

Area	Income per child 5–17 years old, 1944[a]			Number of dollars per nonfarm child for each dollar per farm child		
	Farm and nonfarm (2)	Nonfarm (3)	Farm (4)	1944 (3) ÷ (4) = (5)	1929[b] (6)	Per cent difference 1929–1944[c] (7)
(1)						
United States	$ 5,031	$ 6,419	$1,621	$3.96	$4.44	+10.8
New England	5,999	6,302	2,079	3.03	1.92	−57.8
Middle Atlantic	6,313	6,686	1,795	3.72	3.32	−12.0
South Atlantic	3,614	5,491	988	5.56	4.86	−14.4
East South Central	2,417	4,502	777	5.79	4.85	−19.4
West South Central	3,332	5,125	1,552	4.45	3.56	−22.2
East North Central	5,967	6,969	2,084	3.34	4.10	+16.1
West North Central	4,190	5,348	2,499	2.14	3.85	+44.4
Mountain	5,194	4,852	2,700	1.80	1.85	+02.7
Pacific	10,141	10,951	5,951	1.84	1.42	−26.7

[a] Calculated from data in U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Parts 1–7; and *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1949.* Washington, D.C., 1950, p. 272.

[b] Edwards, Newton. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939, Table XVIII, pp. 173–176.

[c] When the ratio is more favorable to rural children in 1944 than in 1929 the per cent is marked plus, and when it is less favorable it is marked minus.

Between 1929 and 1944, taking the nation as a whole, the relative position of the farm children as to income improved by nearly 11 per cent. In 1929 there was $4.44 of income per nonfarm child to each $1 per farm child; in 1944 the figures were $3.96 to $1 (Table 15). It is worthy of note, however, that this improvement in the nation as a whole is due almost entirely to the increased incomes of the West North Central and the East North Central regions, the regions in which corn and wheat production are most important. In the other regions, except the Mountain region, the farm children were relatively worse off in 1944 than in 1929. The range in decline was from 12 per cent in the Middle Atlantic states to nearly 58 per cent in the New England states. In spite of the great increases in the income of farm people in the Pacific states, the number of dollars of income per farm child as compared to the nonfarm child decreased by nearly 27 per cent between 1929 and 1944. In general it has been true that even in a time of rising incomes the rural children in most parts of the nation have become relatively worse off so far as available income is concerned, a condition quite significant for the financing of public schools (Table 15).

Rural Income and Expenditure for Schools. Rural income, which is closely related to the proportion of rural population, is a determining factor in the amount expended for public schools. Rural conditions would, of course, result in even lower expenditures for schools if the total amount

TABLE 16. CURRENT EXPENSE PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARY PER TEACHER, AND PER CAPITA INCOME OF RURAL AND URBAN PEOPLE, SELECTED YEARS, 1929–1930 TO 1947–1948

Item	1929–1930		1933–1934		1939–1940		1947–1948	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Current expense per pupil[a]	$ 101	$ 72	$ 84	$ 50	$ 105	$ 70	$ 199[b]	$ 128[b]
Average annual salary per teacher[c]	1,944	979	1,735	787	1,955	959	3,014[b]	2,026[b]
Per capita income[d]	842	309	436	153	1,028	502	1,454	851

[a] Blose, David T. *Statistics of Schools in Urban and Rural Areas, 1941–1942.* Circular No. 231. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1945, p. 3.

[b] See Table 52, Chap. 25.

[c] Blose, *loc. cit.*

[d] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *The Farm Income Situation.* FIS-100. Washington, D.C., August-September, 1948, pp. 14–15. Estimates of actual income prior to 1942, except average for 1935–1939; official data for 1935–1939, 1942, 1943, and 1947.

depended wholly upon local taxation, but in most states a considerable amount of the school support comes from state apportionments.

In general the states that have the highest percentages of rural children of school ages have the least financial ability to support schools, make the greatest effort to do so, and still have the least amounts of school funds per pupil.[1]

Until the postwar period the expense per pupil in rural schools usually did not exceed 60 per cent of the expense per pupil in urban schools. Salaries of rural teachers were usually about half those of urban teachers. However, it will be observed from Table 16 that there were considerable fluctuations, depending upon the per capita income status from year to year.

The marked extent to which rurality is related to the number of children to be educated, the income from which to pay for schools, the per cent of income spent for schools, and the expenditures per pupil are reflected in the accompanying tabulation for (1) the six states with the highest per cent of rural population and (2) the six states with the lowest per cent.[2]

	(1)	(2)
Median per cent of rural population	76.6	17.8
Children 5–17 years old in each 1,000 total population	264	172
Personal income per child 5–17 years old	$3,089	$8,942
Per cent of personal total income spent for schools	2.45	1.75
Current expense per pupil in average daily attendance	$ 110	$ 222

Income and Educational Attainment. The income of people is affected by the number of years of schooling they have had. There are, of course, other factors that affect the income of many individuals, but the facts for large numbers of cases establish the generalization.

Professor Warren has shown the relationship between years of schooling and income for New York farmers over a long period of years (see Chapter 4). No doubt similar facts would be found in other states.

---

[1] See preceding section of this chapter and also Chap. 25.

[2] Derived from data obtained from Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems*. Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, pp. 10–34 and 175–178.

Data as to the income of white males in urban and nonfarm areas in 1939 indicate relatively what can be expected in any group. For men twenty-five to sixty-four years old, college graduates earned 1.4 times as much as high school graduates, twice as much as those with seven or eight years of schooling, and 4.3 times as much as men with no formal schooling. Those men with the most schooling also had larger increases in income as they grew older (see Table 17).

Studies of rural-farm families on relief in Alabama during the depression of the 1930's showed that one-third of them were illiterate; another third had only a fourth- to sixth-grade education of a very inferior type; only one in eight had even entered high school; and only one in fifty had graduated from high school. The school attendance of children from these families was low and irregular, creating a vicious cycle of poverty and ignorance from generation to generation. The author of the study concluded that the disadvantaged families could not be gotten out of their dependent status by any amount of public spending or outside help, except through the education of each generation of children. Equal educational opportunity was termed the "*sine qua non* of social adjustment in a democracy."[1]

TABLE 17. MEDIAN WAGE OR SALARY FOR NATIVE WHITE MALES 25 TO 64 YEARS OLD IN URBAN AND RURAL-NONFARM AREAS, 1939[a]

Years of school completed	25–29 years old	25–64 years old	45–54 years old
None	$ 407	$ 473	$ 503
7 and 8	820	1,014	1,280
4 of high school	1,176	1,454	1,875
4 or more of college	1,567	2,046	2,669

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1948*. Washington, D.C., 1949, p. 127.

Some Other Social Effects of Income. The paucity of public services is one of the noticeable effects of low income; at least it is usually an accompaniment of low income. The situation as to public schools has already been pointed out. Other public services that are insufficient in low-income areas are libraries, public health, and agricultural and home-demonstration extension services.

In 1943 more than 600 of the 3,070 counties in the nation had no public library service. Of the 35 million people without library services, at least 32 million were rural.[1]

---

[1] Hoffsomer, Harold. "The Disadvantaged Farm Family in Alabama." *Rural Sociology*, Vol. II, No. 4, December, 1937, pp. 382–392. Hoffsomer, Harold. "Education and Rehabilitation in Alabama Farm Households Receiving Relief." *Bulletin of Alabama Polytechnic Institute*, Vol. XXV, No. 27, July, 1935. pp. 4–5.

In 1947 only 1,874 of the 3,070 counties had a full-time county or district health officer. In the states that had less than 30 per cent rural population in 1940, the per capita income was $814 and the number of effective physicians per 10,000 population was 15.7; in the states that had 70 per cent or more rural population the per capita income was $303 and the corresponding number of physicians was only 7.0.[2] Perhaps the most extensive and effective adult educational program in the world is that carried on by the Cooperative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture in cooperation with the states and counties. In 1947 it reached 6.5 million farm families, 3 million women through homemakers' programs, and 1.75 million youth through 4-H club work.[3] There is, however, a need for great expansion of these services. Under the plan of financing that calls for matching, too many counties in greatest need of such services do not get them at all or do not get enough of them.

Higher Income and the Economic Status of Farmers. The economic status of farmers has greatly improved with the increase of annual income since 1940. The dollar value of agriculture, which included the value of real estate, other physical property, and financial assets, was about 2⅓ times as great in 1949 as in 1940, the increase being from 54 billion dollars to 122 billion dollars. The 68-billion-dollar increase was due to a 49-billion-dollar inflationary value resulting from higher prices, a 2-billion-dollar increase in physical inventories, and a 17-billion-dollar increase in financial assets.[4] The evidence indicates that the farmers have made good use of their increased income.

Economic Interdependence of Rural and Urban People. There is ample evidence that over any considerable period of time there is no such thing as prosperity in the agricultural section of our society unless there is also prosperity in the industrial section, and vice versa.

Production and Consumption. Rural and urban people are dependent upon each other. For example, the farmers produce the food, fiber, and other raw materials necessary to feed and clothe not only themselves but all the people who are not farmers. Many of the raw materials necessary to manufacturing that gives employment and income to many nonfarmers are produced by the farmers.

---

[1] Taylor, Carl C., *et al. Rural Life in the United States.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949, p. 110.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 170.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 108–109.

[4] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *Balance Sheet and Current and Financial Funds of Agriculture.* Agricultural Information Bulletin No. 1. Washington, D.C., October, 1949, p. 2.

On the other hand, industry, including industrial labor, not only provides a market for farm products, but produces most of the tools and machinery necessary to modern farming. Approximately 11 million horses and mules would be required to do the farm work now done by tractors, trucks, and other power-driven equipment.[1]

In 1948 the value of farm machinery and motor vehicles was 9.5 billion dollars, three times the 1940 value; electrical equipment was valued at 625 million dollars and household furnishings at 5.4 billion dollars.[2]

In 1948 the farmers took about 17 per cent of all the products and services of industry.[3]

Migrations. Another evidence of the interdependence of urban and rural people is the migration of large numbers of rural people, mostly youth, to urban areas (see Chapter 2). Such migrations have been necessary because the birth rates in farm areas have far exceeded the number required to maintain a stable farm population, while in the cities the birth rates have been less than the number required to maintain stability of population, to say nothing of the necessary growth of urban population under an expanding industrial economy.

The migrants go to their new habitat with all their assets and liabilities. What they are is the product of their total environment, of all their opportunities and lack of opportunities, and of the culture from which they come. It of necessity follows that no part of the national community can be callous or indifferent to the educational and health facilities available to the people of any community, no matter how isolated.

Agriculture and Industry. The interdependence of agriculture and industry in economic welfare has been ably presented by Professor Theodore W. Schultz.[4] He has shown that the chief cause of low earnings in agriculture is unemployment in industry and the failure of industrial output to expand. He demonstrated the proposition that when industrial expansion is under way at a rate several times as great as the expansion in agriculture there is prosperity in agriculture.

Basic to the propositions just stated is the fact that agriculture is overpopulated and the labor force is too great. That fact has not been entirely obvious, but it is evidenced by the following facts: (1) the migrations of labor from agriculture to industry are greatest when agricultural prices and incomes are highest; (2) during the Second World War industrial production increased at the phenomenal rate of over 30 per cent a year, while agricultural production increased only 5 per cent a year. Under those conditions the relative earnings of agriculture improved by nearly 17 per cent a year; and there was a net loss of farm working force at the rate of over 8 per cent a year.[1] From an analysis of the facts, Dr. Schultz draws the following significant conclusions:

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

[2] *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, September, 1948, p. 11.

[3] American Institute on Cooperation. *Agricultural America.* Washington, D.C.: p. 4.

[4] Schultz, *op. cit.*, pp. 113–127.

> It seems likely that after the war, when relief needs have been met and granaries restocked, agriculture can be fairly prosperous—*if during the first two decades after the war the annual rate of increase of nonagricultural output reaches 4 to 6 percent.* This would probably make room for an expansion in agriculture of upward of 2 percent per year. Should this rate prevail, the greatest part of the old farm problem, which in the years between the two wars looked as though it were here to stay, would gradually disappear.[2]

Policies and Programs Affecting Rural Income. The relative income status of rural people has long been affected by public policies and programs. For that reason it is a matter of primary importance that rural people know what policies and programs affect their economic welfare and how.

Policies—Some Detrimental, Some Helpful. Among the policies that have had profound influences on the amount and fluctuations of the income of farmers and others immediately dependent on agricultural pursuits have been the following:

1. The Federal distribution of the public lands without safeguards against speculation and the acquisition of large holdings by corporations and speculators.
2. The tariff laws that have resulted in farmers selling in a free market and buying in a protected market.
3. Differential freight rates, mostly unfavorable to farmers, especially those in the South and West.
4. Economic assistance to foreign nations since the Second World War under the Economic Cooperation Administration which has maintained a sizable market for agricultural products.
5. The development and control of water resources.
6. Soil conservation programs.
7. The purchase of lands to be added to the public domain.
8. The regulation of grazing in arid and semiarid areas.

Programs of Governmental Services and Aid. The chief governmental programs that have added immeasurably to rural income either directly or indirectly are the following:

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 125.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 126–127.

1. The United States Department of Agriculture, especially its research programs, its experimental stations, and the Cooperative Extension Service for agriculture, homemaking, and 4-H club work with youth.

2. The establishment of the land-grant colleges of agriclture and mechanical arts, and Federal and state financial assistance given them annually since 1862.

3. Federal and state financial support of vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act, the George-Deen Act, and similar legislation.

4. A variety of programs under the administration of the United States Department of Agriculture, among which are, or have been, the disposal of surplus products through food stamps during the depression, as a relief measure; the school lunch program; arrangements for exports and other sales programs; crop insurance on a restricted and experimental basis; the Agricultural Adjustment Administration; the price-support program for agricultural products; the Rural Electrification Administration; and the Farm Security Administration.

5. The Tennessee Valley Authority.

6. Federal and state appropriations for roads and highways.

7. Federal appropriations for reclamation, drainage, and irrigation.

8. Federal and state appropriations for public health services.

9. Federal and state grants-in-aid for hospital construction, a considerable part of which has been granted for county hospitals.

10. Credit facilities for farmers through such agencies as the Farm Credit Administration, Commodity Credit Corporation, Federal Land Banks, Farm Security Administration, Rural Electrification Administration, Farm Home Administration, and the Veterans Administration with its guaranteed loans to veterans for the purchase of homes and farms.

Selected Aspects of Public Policy and Program. Some matters of public policy and program are of sufficient importance to merit a few pointed comments:

1. Taxes paid by farmers become excessive when they effect a real reduction of income. It is true, however, that equitable taxes result in improving the income status of farmers by allowing them services they could not obtain individually.

Farm real-estate taxes tend to be too high in times of depression and too low in times of boom or prosperity. Between 1940 and 1948 such taxes fell from 4 per cent of total cash receipts from agriculture[1] to 2 per cent.[2] However, at the same time other types of taxes paid by farmers rose from 233 million dollars to 1,358 million dollars.[3]

2. The farm price-support program of the Federal government since 1933 has increased the income of farmers and tends toward stabilization of income. In 1940 Federal payments under this program amounted to 776 million dollars; in 1946, to 772 million dollars; and in 1947, to 314 million dollars.[4]

3. In prosperous times both exports and imports of agricultural products are high,

---

[1] U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Farmers in a Changing World.* Yearbook of Agriculture. Washington, D.C., 1940, p. 779.

[2] U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *Agricultural Finance Review*, Vol. 12, November, 1949, Table 23.

[3] *Ibid.*, Table 22 and p. 70.

[4] "Balance Sheet of Agriculture, 1948." *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, September, 1948, p. 3.

a situation suggesting the desirability of large world trade and relative freedom of action in the world market.

4. Public credit agencies have improved the economic status of farmers by greatly reducing interest rates and making loans available to farmers when private agencies would not or could not furnish the needed funds.

5. Federal grants-in-aid generally add to the income of rural people, especially when they are granted on an equalization basis. Where such aid is granted to the states on a matching basis, the states in the lower income group have been in position to profit least by the Federal grants or they have been induced to make comparatively excessive efforts to raise revenues to meet the matching conditions.

6. Farm people have been at a considerable disadvantage by not being eligible to social-security benefits, except old-age pensions, a condition somewhat but not wholly improved by legislation in 1950.

A Look Ahead. If history repeats itself, which it probably never does in entirety, it may be expected that rural income will fall considerably from the peak it has attained during and following the Second World War. There may be booms and depressions. The question is: How extensive will such changes be? The answer to a considerable extent will be determined by what happens about five factors involving economic conditions and activities: (1) the trend in world trade, international relationships, and whether we have peace or war; (2) the national policies adopted with respect to agricultural prices and relative status of agricultural income; (3) Federal and state policies with respect to farm credit, rural housing, health facilities, conservation, rural electrification, and other security and developmental programs; (4) the stability and rate of progress of our industrial production; and (5) educational policy which depends upon state and Federal financial equalization of public school opportunities, what the schools teach and how, and the expansion of adult education, especially those programs that depend upon a full expansion of the Cooperative Extension Service.

The first of these factors is highly unpredictable. If war comes again, agricultural income will probably soar higher than ever. The aftermath, however, even assuming victory for our nation, may well be predicted as disastrous, for our resources will probably become more extensively exhausted and world trade may for a long time become stagnant.

The second factor, national policies with respect to agricultural prices, depends upon whether the national government adopts a policy of forward pricing that will assure farmers a dependable income. Restriction of production is probably no sound means of attaining parity of agricultural income. The reduction of acreage in the past did not materially reduce the quantity of production and resulted in the maleconomic use of resources. Furthermore, the supply of food and fiber in the world is too scarce to justify reduction of production. The best policy in the opinion of many eminent authorities is one that lets prices on the market find their level according to the law of supply and demand and that guarantees by Federal compensatory payments to the producer the difference between the market price and a standard price for each commodity. Standard price should be in terms of a predepression price that is determined by conditions at the time of the occurrence of depression. The conditions determining any prices will, of course, have to be determined by the objective measurement of several pertinent economic factors. Whatever the price guaranteed, it should be announced in advance of the growing season and be less than prosperity prices.[1] At least, the author of this chapter agrees with such a policy.

Perhaps it should be pointed out that government aid with some degree of governmental control and so-called "free individual enterprise" such as family-sized farms are theoretically in conflict. The answer to the seeming paradox is: "What we have experienced in agriculture suggests that vigorous, enterprising farms and equally vigorous, well designed governmental programs may be highly complementary. One may be a condition necessary to the other. It may be that neither can perform at a maximum without the other."[2]

As to the third factor (governmental credit and aid), it is certainly true that farmers and small enterprisers rarely have had available, sufficient, timely, and equitable credit to carry on in solvency, unless the Federal government has provided the facilities. In fact, what the Federal government had done seems to have stimulated equity, imagination, and enterprise on the part of private lenders. Subsidies for health, education, and conservation often furnish the impetus to needed economic improvement. They can add immeasurably to wealth, income, and the general welfare.

As to the fourth factor (industrial production), agricultural prosperity seems to depend upon annual rate of increase of 4 to 6 per cent in industrial production. It seems to be that government aid to private industry in the form of credit or guaranteed loans and programs of expanding world markets for industrial products will result in tangible benefits to agricultural income.

The fifth factor (education) is a matter of the greatest importance. Fundamentally, all progress depends upon the character, knowledge, skill, and morale of the people. Those qualities depend in no small measure upon universal free public schools for children and youth and for adults. Facilities for education depend upon adequate financial support; financial support depends upon ability to pay taxes; and ability

[1] Schultz, *op. cit.*, pp. 219–235, 264–265.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 164.

to pay taxes is enhanced by state and Federal policies of grants-in-aid to educational institutions and for essential economic programs.

But financial aid alone is not sufficient; much depends upon what is taught and how. Certainly schools ought to deal with the facts of rural life and the economic factors that affect it. It may well be that ready-made programs of political action should not be advocated, but there is no excuse for not teaching the facts and acquainting the people with the proposed alternatives. Among other things the schools certainly ought to teach that three factors cannot with impunity be ignored and shunted aside: education (knowledge, information, and skills), cooperation of neighbors (neighbors used in a broad sense), and political action according to democratic principles and through our representative form of government.

What we believe, what we set up as ideals, what we do about cooperative activities, what we know based on science and technology, how we educate and whom and how many we educate, and what we do through our governmental policy no doubt hold the answer to the future prosperity and effectiveness of our rural society.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. For the counties of your state, make a table of the per cent of farm population, the per cent of persons five to seventeen years old in the population, the per capita income, the current expenses for public schools from local sources (district and county taxes), the per cent of income spent through local taxes for public schools, the expense per pupil from local sources, and the total current expense per pupil from all sources. Rank the counties according to per cent of rural population and compare these ranks with the ranks on other items. What appears to be the relationship between rurality, educational burden, income, effort to support schools, and the expenditures per pupil?

2. Following a procedure similar to that indicated above, find out the relationship between rurality and public library service, health service, and the cooperative agricultural extension service.

3. By sample study, find out the per cent of farm, nonfarm, and urban families, separately, with annual incomes of various amounts, as under $500, $500 to $1,000, and other suitable intervals. What are the causes of the differences in income? What implications do they have for education? What are some possible measures for improvement?

4. Make a sample study of the income by grades of school attainment of the people of a selected county or community. Compare the farm and nonfarm people.

5. For the persons or families involved in the sample studies in Problems 3 and 4 above, find out the average number of school-age children per family or head of a family for each income group and each group according to educational attainment. What implications do these facts have for education?

6. For some selected rural community, find out how many persons who have gone to school in it since 1940 have migrated to urban communities. In terms of the cost

of rearing and schooling a child to the age of eighteen, estimate the cost of such migrations to the community. What implications do the facts found have for education?

7. For a selected county or community, find out what has happened about taxes paid by farmers in relationship to income since 1940. After taxes, how does net income, that is, income after deducting the expense of production, compare for the year 1940 and the current year? What implications do the facts have for local support of schools?

8. For a selected county, find out how the taxes paid by farmers for schools as related to income compares with the taxes paid by nonfarm people as related to their income. What are the relative burdens and efforts of the farm and nonfarm people?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Rural Schools for Tomorrow.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1945. Chap. 4, "Rural Income and Taxation as They Affect the Educational Program," pp. 54–65.

Edwards, Newton. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth—A National Responsibility.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939.

Schultz, Theodore W. *Agriculture in an Unstable Economy.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945.

———. "Farm Income Migration and Leisure," *Education for Rural America* (Floyd W. Reeves, ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945, Chap. III, pp. 38–53.

Taylor, Carl C., *et al. Rural Life in the United States.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949. Chaps. 15–18, pp. 264–328.

U. S. Department of Agriculture, *Farmers in a Changing World.* Yearbook of Agriculture. Washington, D.C., 1940. Part 2, "Agriculture and the National Welfare," pp. 329–384. Part 3, "The Farmer's Problems Today and the Efforts to Solve Them," pp. 385–940.

Works, George A., and Lesser, Simon D. *Rural America Today—Its Schools and Community Life.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Chap. 1, "Dollars and Children," pp. 1–40. Chap. 16, "The Responsibility of the States and the Nation," pp. 406–440.

CHAPTER 4

MAKING FARMING PAY

Because 58.3 per cent of public school monies (as of 1947–1948) comes from county and local sources, the prosperity of the rural areas or the lack of it has a significant effect upon the scope and the effectiveness of the educational program. Since the income from farming is an important factor in rural prosperity, this chapter undertakes to point out certain conditions that influence success in that occupation.

The better preparation of young men for farming is discussed in Chapter 10.

Size of Farm in the United States. In thinking about the most profitable organization for any business, one of the first points to be considered is size. For the entire country, the average size of farm in terms of acres was 195 in 1945. This varied from 56 acres per farm in Massachusetts to 2,533 acres per farm in Wyoming. This should not be taken to indicate that the farms of Wyoming are necessarily large businesses. It takes a large area to support a family where the topography is rough and the rainfall is low. The average acreage per farm in the Northern states was 180, in the Southern states 131, and in the Western states 639.

The 1945 census classified the farms of the United States according to economic classes based primarily on the total value of the farm products sold or used in the farm household in 1944. Using this classification as a basis the farms have been divided into three groups which we will call small, medium, and large (Table 18). The small farms produced less than $1,200 worth of farm products. On many of these farms there were other sources of income in addition to farming. These small farms accounted for 42 per cent of all the farms in the country but produced only 7 per cent of the value of farm products. Half these small farms were located in the Southern states.

The medium-sized farms, which accounted for 56 per cent of all farms in the country, produced almost three-fourths of the total value of farm products. The large farms, which were only 2 per cent of all the farms in the country, produced almost one-fourth the value of the products.

A little more than half these large farms were located in the Western states.

By the standards of most businesses, all the small and medium-sized farms are small business, and even some of the large farms would be considered small businesses in many manufacturing enterprises. A manufacturing enterprise producing only $20,000 worth of products in a year would be a small business. Some of the large farms were owned by corporations, but most of them were operated by individual farm families.

TABLE 18. SOME PRODUCTION DATA FOR SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE FARMS, UNITED STATES, 1944[a]

Size of farm business	Value of farm products per farm in 1944	Number of farms (millions)	Per cent of all U.S. farms	Total value of products (millions)	Per cent of total value of products
Small..............	Less than $1,200	2.5	42	$ 1,368	7
Medium...........	$1,200–$19,999	3.3	56	12,866	71
Large..............	$20,000 or more	0.1	2	4,004	22
Total............	....	5.9	100	$18,238	100

[a] Basic data from the United States census.

Kinds of Farm Organization. There are many kinds of farm organization, and it is important to understand the differences between them and the place of each. Farms may first be divided into family farms and large-scale farms. On family farms, most of the work is done by the farmer and his family. Most of the farms in America are family farms. In 1945, only 47 per cent of the farms in the United States had any hired labor, and these farms which had hired labor used an average of only 182 days of hired help.

Family farms may be divided into four groups: subsistence, residential, commercial, and part-time.

Subsistence Farms. Subsistence farms are those on which the emphasis is placed on production for home use with only a small amount being sold. The job of the family is farming, with little or no nonfarm income. On subsistence farms there may be a high standard of living with respect to food, but since there is little cash there can be no plumbing, radios, automobiles, refrigerators, or other modern conveniences. In the United States, in pioneer days, all our farms were subsistence farms. Today, these farms are found in significant numbers in the southern Appalachian Mountains and the Ozark Mountains.

Residential Farms. On a residential farm the total amount of farm production is small and very little is sold. The family depends largely on nonfarm income for their living. Some owners of residential farms are unskilled laborers, some are skilled laborers, and some are highly successful professional men. The number of residential farms in the country is increasing rapidly. The automobile, the hard road, and the snow plow make it possible for large numbers of city workers to live in the country. Perhaps the most important reason for this development is the conviction that the open country is a good place to raise children.

Family-commercial Farms. Most of the agricultural production of the United States is from family farms which are operated as businesses. These include the medium-sized farms discussed previously and many of the large farms. On a family-commercial farm the emphasis is on production for sale. The only items produced for home use are those which can be produced efficiently. Most of the production is sold, and all or most of the income of the family is from farming. Some labor may be hired depending on the amount of family help available. The operator works with both his hands and his head.

Part-time Farms. A part-time farm is a combination of a residential farm and a commercial farm. The owner of such a farm is a man with two jobs—one of which is farming. It is important to distinguish between part-time and residential farming. A residential farmer is a city worker who has decided to live in the country and do a little farming when he feels like it. A part-time farmer has enough farming so that it is business, and he will frequently find that his farming interferes with his vacation trips or family picnics.

Large-scale Farms. Large-scale farms are those with a considerable number of workers under one manager. The manager's time is taken up almost completely with management and not with manual labor. In the United States, there are relatively few such farms, although most business outside of agriculture is organized on a large-scale basis. A comparison of the advantages of large-scale and individual operation as applied to *any business* should help in explaining why there are not more large-scale farms.

Advantages of large-scale operation	*Advantages of individual operation*
Volume of business in buying and selling	Manager, being the owner, has more interest in the business
Division of labor so that each man can be a specialist in his job	Laborers have more interest in the business
Long life—business not liquidated when manager dies or retires	Flexible labor supply—in emergencies workers can put in longer hours and other members of the family help out
Standardized production—a large quantity all made the same	Can make decisions quickly—do not have to wait for board of directors to meet

The main problems of large-scale farms have been labor problems. In fruit and vegetable farming, one man can supervise a large number of workers, so we do have a considerable number of large-scale fruit and vegetable farms. But in most types of farming the workers are scattered all over the area, and the supervision of a large number of disinterested workers involves a prohibitive expense.

For the most part, the trend in American agriculture has been to continue the family farm in order to get the advantages of individual operation which are listed above, *but to cooperate to do the jobs where the advantages of large-scale operation are particularly important.* As one example of this latter trend, farmers cooperate to hire a technical expert known as the "county agent."

Qualifications for Success on a Family-commercial Farm. Most of our agricultural production is from family-commercial farms. What are the personal requirements for successful operation of such a farm?

The Farmer's Job. Some persons who may succeed in specialized jobs in a city are not qualified for farming, because farming calls for such versatile ability. A good farmer is a combination of businessman, mechanic, naturalist and scientist, and laborer.

On a family-commercial farm, most of the products are sold, and most of the items consumed by the family are purchased. The farm is a business, and sound business principles must be applied if it is to succeed.

Mechanical ability has always been important in farming, but the great increase in complicated machines in recent years has made this ability much more important than formerly. Occasionally a farmer can depend on hired men for this mechanical ability, but usually he not only must be the mechanic but must instruct the men and guard against their carelessness.

The farmer's job is growing plants and animals. A farmer must know the scientific principles of crop and animal production, and he must also know the practical application of these principles to his own farm. An important requirement for success in farming is a keen interest in growing things. With all our scientific production, we have not outgrown the old adage, "The eye of the master fatteneth his cattle."

Good health and good physical strength are important for both the farmer and his wife. Modern machinery has reduced the amount of heavy physical labor on the farm and in the home, but there are still many jobs which require a strong back. Persons who are physically handicapped will usually find that they can get along best in a specialized job which does not require heavy physical exertion. Running a farm is no job for either the physically or mentally handicapped.

Education for the Job. In preparing for farming one should consider both schooling and work experience. One of these alone is not enough. One does not substitute for the other.

The importance of schooling is underemphasized by persons who do not have it and is likely to be overemphasized by persons who do have it. Farm management records have indicated that the farmers with more schooling, on the average, run larger businesses, do a better job of farming, and make more money than those with less schooling. An example of this is given in Table 19. Some college graduates have made spectacular failures, and some men who can hardly read and write have been successful farmers, but our records indicate that these are exceptions rather than the rule.

TABLE 19. RELATION OF EDUCATION OF THE OPERATOR TO VARIOUS FACTORS[a]
(10,969 New York Farm Records, 1907–1936)

Education of operator	Number of records	Per cent of records	Age of operator	Productive man work units		Average labor income
				Per farm	Per man	
Grade school[b]	6,822	62.2	50	402	218	$ 213
High school	2,985	27.2	45	495	236	528
Business college	363	3.3	45	529	237	498
Nonagricultural college	265	2.4	47	556	241	353
Agricultural college[c]	534	4.9	37	624	251	1,057

[a] Cornell Extension Bulletin No. 401. Ithaca, N. Y., p. 26.

[b] Includes a very small number of operators with no formal education.

[c] Includes agricultural school and agricultural short course. Does not include vocational agriculture in high school.

Education is not a guarantee of success in farming. It cannot overcome the handicaps of lack of ability, inexperience, or a poor farm. For any individual farmer, education improves the chances of achieving financial success. Farming deals with living things. There are many difficult and intricate problems. Farming is becoming more of a science and less of an art. The more this becomes true, the greater is the importance of education. Willingness to accept new ideas is becoming increasingly important in farming. A successful farmer must not be the last to lay the old aside. Our farm management records indicate that persons with the most formal education find it easiest to adopt new ideas.

Farm experience is very important for success in a farm business. The knowledge necessary for success in any business is largely gained by practical experience, and farming is no exception. People who have never tried to run a farm often fail to realize the importance of actual experience. Very few people would think they could take over the job of an airplane pilot without any experience, but there seem to be many who think they can take over the running of a farm without any previous experience. A careful study of these two jobs would show that the farmer needs to know more things than does the pilot.

Those who are teaching young people in school should continually emphasize the importance of work experience for success in any business. One cannot get his entire education in school.

The operators of family-commercial farms have need for a continuous adult-education program to help them in meeting emergency needs. New technical knowledge is becoming available at an increasingly rapid rate. The rural schools, working with the extension service, must plan for an increased emphasis on adult education for farmers.

Factors Affecting Profits on Family-commercial Farms. The purpose of the section which follows is to summarize the information gathered from thousands of practical farmers, and analyzed by the economists in the state colleges of agriculture, to show why some farms pay better than others.

Prices. In discussing the factors that affect profits we must always place prices at the top of the list, even though the individual farmer has little control over them. During the lifetimes of all of us, we have had periods of generally high prices when most farmers were successful. One such period was 1916 to 1920, when the average price paid to United States farmers for a bushel of wheat was $1.92. Another such period was 1945 to 1949, when the average price of wheat was $1.93. We have also had periods of generally low prices, when large numbers of farmers lost their farms. One such period was 1931 to 1933, when the average price paid to United States farmers for a bushel of wheat was 49 cents.

The position of the individual farmer with respect to the general level of all prices might be compared to that of the captain of a sailing vessel. The captain cannot control the wind, but he can adjust his sails. In good weather, almost anyone can be a sailor. In times of good prices, almost anyone can be a farmer. Sailors and farmers are tested in stormy weather. After the storm has passed the good farmers and good sailors are still afloat. The poor ones have sunk.

As an example of the importance of prices, reference is made to farm business records for 28 dairy farmers in Montgomery County, New York. Records are available for 1933, a year of low prices, and 1944, a year of high prices. The average labor income[1] of these 28 farmers was −$569 in 1933, and $2,087 in 1944. A glance at these figures might suggest that prices are the only thing determining farm income. However, a study of the individual farms among these 28 showed that in 1944 one farmer had a labor income of $6,311 while another had a labor income of −$272. In 1933 one farmer had a labor income of $199 while another had a labor income of −$2,597.

---

[1] A farmer's labor income is what he gets for his year's work after paying all business expenses and interest on all of the capital invested, but in addition to his labor income he has the use of a house and the farm products furnished by the farm for the family.

The difference between the average labor income of the 28 farmers in 1944 and 1933 was $2,656. The difference between the most successful and the least successful farmer in 1944 was $6,583. This indicates that there are certainly other factors in addition to prices which affect farm profits.

Success in farming is affected by many factors. The large number of these factors makes it difficult to be sure just which are most important. A person who makes a casual observation of a farm business often attributes success or failure to the wrong cause.

For example, success may be attributed to the method of feeding the hens, when as a matter of fact the hens are not paying and the cows are keeping both the farmer and the hens. The farmer may attribute a good bean crop to the date of planting, when it is really due to good soil. The neighbor may think that failure to prosper is due to poor fertilization practices, when it is really due to doctor and hospital bills.

The real reasons for success or failure usually stand out clearly when we study the records of many farm businesses. It is the purpose of the discussion which follows to summarize the findings from many thousands of farm records for many different years.

Size of Business. Over the years, farm records have indicated that farms which are large enough to keep two to four men profitably employed have been more successful than those which furnish work for less than two men. The table below which shows the usual relationship between size and profits could be duplicated many times, for other years, other types of farming, and other regions.

TABLE 20. RELATION OF SIZE OF BUSINESS TO LABOR INCOME[a]
(100 Dairy Farms, Oneida County, New York, 1942 to 1943)

Size of farm business	Number of farms	Man equivalent	Number of cows	Pounds of milk produced per cow	Labor income
One-man farm	18	1.2	10	7,500	$ 473
One-and-a-half-man farm	35	1.6	15	7,246	932
Two-man farm	27	2.0	23	6,874	1,483
Three-man farm	20	2.8	34	7,710	1,968

[a] Data from Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station No. 830.

Farm-management records have shown the advantages of large businesses to be primarily economies in the use of labor, equipment, and capital. With a very small business, a considerable proportion of the time is spent in getting ready to do something and in finishing the job. In doing chores, it takes just as long to get up in the haymow to throw down hay for three cows as it does for 30. It does not take ten times as long to get 50 cows from pasture as it does to get five. It does not take five times as long to clean up the milking machine for 50 cows as it does for a 10-cow herd. With a one-man business a farmer spends most of his time in "getting ready" and "finishing up."

Another reason for economy of labor on a two- to four-man business is that it is difficult for a man working alone to do many farm operations. Thus, a farm which really does not have business enough to keep two men profitably employed often has a second man because it is impossible to do without him.

Greater efficiency in the use of equipment is another advantage of the larger businesses. It takes almost as much equipment to run a 100-acre dairy farm as it does to run a 200-acre one. Very little of our farm equipment, even on a large farm, is used to its full capacity. As more equipment is invented it becomes increasingly important to have a large business. For example, not many years ago potatoes were planted by hand, the bugs knocked off into a can of kerosene, and the potatoes dug with a potato hook. The efficiency in the use of equipment under such an operation was as good with a 1-acre potato patch as with a 50-acre field. Today, with expensive machines for planting, spraying, and digging, it is important to have enough business to use the machines efficiently.

While on the average the larger farms within the range of the family size are the most successful, these larger farms have the greatest risk of a large loss as well as the best chance for a large gain. Under certain unfavorable conditions a large farm may lose more money than a small one. Some of these unfavorable conditions are poor land, poor animals, very unfavorable yields, and low prices.

Sometimes, particularly in times of poor prices, we hear discussions which indicate that a small farm is the most desirable. There are some who feel that the question of size of farm is best summed up in the old rhyme:

> A little farm well tilled,
> A little barn well filled,
> A little wife well willed,
> Are great riches.

There may be less poetry in a moderately large farm, but there is a better living. Farm-management records indicate that the rhyme should be revised to read as follows:

A moderately large farm well tilled,
A moderately large barn well filled,
And the wife, whatever her size,
Will be well willed.

Enlarging a farm business means getting more acres or doing more business on the same acreage. Intensifying the business by doing more business on the same acres will solve the problem for some farmers and help solve it for others, but in most cases an important increase in size of business will involve more acres.

The farms in most parts of the United States were laid out many years ago, when many farm operations were done by laborious hand methods. As new machinery has been invented it has become possible for one family to care for a larger and larger acreage. Farms are steadily becoming larger, but there is no indication of any trend away from the family-sized unit.

Adjusting the size of farm to changing conditions is a slow and difficult process. Ordinarily, enlarging the farm business means combining two farms. Usually such adjustments are made following the death or retirement of a farmer.

Rates of Production of Crops and Animals. Over the years, farm-management records have indicated that, within the limits of the actual practice of farmers, the higher the yields of crops or the production of animals, the higher the labor income of the farmer. With yields much below the average of their neighbors, farmers usually do not make hired men's wages.

A few farms are successful in spite of low yields. This is only one factor affecting farm profits—a very important one, but not the only one. Occasionally someone emphasizes the importance of good yields by disparaging the importance of size, and we hear such advice as "farm fewer acres and do it better." This is mixing good advice with bad advice. It is not necessary to reduce the size of the farm below that adapted to modern machinery in order to get better crop yields or production per animal.

Occasionally a farmer spends so much money in getting high production of crops and animals that it does not pay. This is more likely to be done by persons who are using the farm as a place to *spend* money than by persons who are using the farm as a place to *make* money.

There are many factors to consider in obtaining good rates of production. One of the most important is to have good land and good animals. The choice of a farm is a very important milestone in a farmer's life. The choice of the animals to put on this farm is also important. A farmer should be a good judge of land and a good judge of animals.

The farmer's problem is to adjust his crop yields and the production per animal to the conditions with which he works. It is a mistake to suggest that every farmer should get 10,000 pounds of milk per cow, or 190 eggs per hen, or 400 bushels of potatoes per acre. These fixed goals are too high for some and too low for others. The most profitable adjustment of yields depends on many factors. These include the price of land, the quality of the animals, the cost of labor, the price of fertilizer, and the price of the product. It is not desirable that every farmer should attempt to get the maximum possible crop yields or production per animal. Extremely high yields are expensive. There is plenty of evidence to show that good yields are profitable, but extremely high yields are usually obtained at a high cost.

Selection and Combination of Enterprises. In deciding on the best combination of enterprises for any one farm there are many factors to be considered. The most important of these are the following:

1. *The relative profits of different enterprises.* Because of differences in climate, soil, topography, and markets, certain areas have definite advantages in the production of some products, while others have advantages in the production of other products. It is to the advantage of each area to concentrate as much as possible on the production of those items which are most profitable in that area.

2. *Labor distribution.* It is desirable to choose a group of enterprises which will require labor throughout the year, in preference to a selection which causes extreme peaks in labor requirements.

3. *The relative amounts of tillable and untillable land.* Where considerable untillable land is available, the enterprises should be so chosen as to provide a use for this land, such as by grazing livestock on it.

4. *The use of by-products.* Some of the common by-products on farms are manure, straw, cornstalks, pea vines, and waste vegetables. Farming cannot stand an avoidable waste of by-products any more than can the meat-packing and oil-refining industries.

5. *Maintenance of productivity.* A farm business cannot be considered successful unless it maintains the productivity of the soil. Much of this is directly or indirectly a question of the proper combination of enterprises. Fields or farms subject to erosion need a higher percentage of the land in grass than would be necessary if erosion were not a hazard. Increasing the proportion of the land in grass means more livestock and a complete change in the system of farming.

The organic-matter content of the soil is largely maintained by the use of manure and crop residues. This means a combination of enterprises to provide sufficient of these residues. Some farmers use green manure crops to maintain the organic matter, but this is an expensive method and can be justified only for intensive farming such as market gardening.

The maintenance of the nitrogen supply in the soil may be accomplished by buying commercial nitrogen, but the use of manure and legumes is very important.

6. *Rotation.* As agriculture becomes better established, regular rotations become common. The advantages are varied. For some crops, rotation reduces disease and insect infestation. Some rotations provide a sequence of crops which saves labor. In areas where regular crop rotations have proved desirable, the enterprises chosen for the farm business must fit the rotation.

7. *Risk.* A farm with a combination of several enterprises usually has less risk of a serious loss than a specialized farm.

8. *Distribution of income.* Most persons will get along better with their income distributed throughout the year, rather than getting the entire year's income all at once. Many crop farmers keep a small dairy in order "to have some money coming in each month."

9. *The use of buildings and machinery.* General-purpose buildings and machines are used most efficiently on a diversified business. Specialized buildings and machines are used most efficiently on a specialized business. The tendency is toward an increased number of expensive specialized machines such as corn pickers. This tendency is pushing us toward more specialization in agriculture.

10. *Capital available.* The amount of capital which an individual has available may be a minor factor in the selection of enterprises. One who is short of capital should avoid investments with a slow turnover, such as developing a new strain of livestock. However, the difference in investment for good-sized businesses of different types is not usually great, so the amount of capital available is not usually an important factor in deciding on the best combination of enterprises for a particular farm.

11. *The type of farming of the neighbors.* Most people farm with a system similar to their neighbors because they have similar climate, soil, topography, and markets. Even if a farmer has a considerably different climate, soil, topography, or market than his neighbors, he may find it to his advantage to follow the community system of farming in order to get the advantage of community experience and advertising, and in order to be able to hire help which is experienced in his type of farming.

12. *Personal preference.* The personal preference of the farmer as to selection and combination of enterprises should be considered only *after* all the other factors listed above have been considered. One who tries to organize a farm because of his personal preferences, but in conflict with the other factors discussed above, is swimming against the current. If he is a sufficiently skillful swimmer he may still make progress, but even a skillful swimmer can make better progress with the current than against it.

One of the common errors in advising farmers in the selection of enterprises is to overemphasize some one of the above factors at the expense of the others. For example, much has been said concerning the risk involved in one-crop farming. Most one-crop areas have chosen to operate in this manner because they have found that this way pays best. In most one-crop areas, such as the potato region of northern Maine, there is a great difference between the profits to be derived from the most profitable enterprise and the next most profitable. On the other hand, wherever there is a situation in which two or three enterprises are about equally profitable, a diversified agriculture is almost certain to result.

Sometimes personal preference is thought of as the most important factor to be considered in selecting enterprises. One who has a strong personal preference as to the kind of farming he wishes to do should be careful that he selects a farm which is adapted to that kind of farming. It is unfortunate when a person who has a strong preference as to kind of farming and also a strong preference in favor of some one farm finds that his two preferences are antagonistic.

Some persons get their personal preferences and the relative profits of different enterprises mixed up. We hear farmers and others discussing the question of whether beef will pay in New York, or apples in Iowa, or hogs in Massachusetts. Unless you are promoting beef, apples, or hogs, this is no way to look at the question. The real question is whether *on this farm* beef will pay better than the enterprises with which it competes. It is not a question of whether apples will pay in Iowa, but will they pay as well as corn. Will hogs in Massachusetts pay as well as poultry?

Labor Efficiency. Labor is the most expensive item entering into the cost of farm operation. This is true whether the farmer is hiring help or not. The farmer's own time is a valuable item, because he usually has the alternative of taking another job at good wages.

Labor is used most efficiently on a moderately large business with good yields of crops and production per animal, and with enterprises so combined that the labor requirements are spread out through the year.

The use of well-established laborsaving machines is always important. There are some farmers who get so much machinery that they lose money, but there are probably many more who do not have enough equipment.

Changes in the layout of the farm or the arrangement of the buildings offer possibilities of increased efficiency on many farms. Farmers often get in the habit of doing chores in an inconveniently arranged barn and think nothing of it.

Planning the work ahead will help on many farms. A farmer's plans are always subject to change without notice from the weather man. It is important to keep a list of jobs which need doing so that, when the weather changes, the farmer will know immediately which is the most pressing job under the changed situation. Doing work on time is one way to save labor and do a better job. This is particularly true of weed control. If weeds are killed when they are little, it does not take so long as when the job is postponed.

Efficiency in the Use of Farm Equipment. Few, if any, farm businesses are large enough to justify ownership of all the modern equipment. As an example, let us consider dairy farms. Some are too small to justify a milking machine. Some which are large enough to afford a milking machine do not have enough business to warrant owning a hay baler. Some which are big enough to have both these machines are not yet big enough to own their own bulldozer. Certainly there are very few which are so large that they need to own their own well-drilling outfit. It would take quite a business to keep a well-drilling outfit busy.

If a farm business is not large enough to make efficient use of a particular piece of machinery, the farmer has about six choices as to what to do:

1. Buy the machine but use it inefficiently.
2. Do without the machine and attempt to compete with the man who has a business large enough to use it. In principle, this means using a sickle and flail and trying to compete with a combine.
3. Buy the machine, and make full use of it by doing custom work for others in addition to doing his own work.
4. Go in with the neighbors on cooperative ownership of the machine.
5. Hire someone who owns the machine to do the job.
6. Enlarge his farm business to the point where it justifies ownership of the machine.

The first two choices listed above are no good. Each of the last four choices has its place, and it is not uncommon for one farmer to be practicing all of them at once—for different machines. For example, one farmer does the following:

He owns a hay baler, and does some custom work for others.
He owns a silo-filling outfit in cooperation with a neighbor.
He hires a neighbor to combine his grain.
He has put four farms together into one unit in order to justify ownership of most of the modern equipment which he needs to use.

Problems in Getting Started on a Family-commercial Farm. If a young man is properly prepared by ability and training, his two big problems in getting started in farming are choosing a farm and getting control of capital.

Choosing a Farm. A check list of points to consider when buying a farm is given on pages 73 and 74.

Of all the points in the check list, *climate* is one of the most likely to be overlooked. Any person, any day, in any year can see the topography. A well-trained person can see the soil any day when it is not frozen. But with respect to climate a person might be wrong on the basis of several years' observations or by "asking the neighbors." Anyone can see the weather, but climate is weather over a period of years. It is easy to be misled on the basis of a period of unusually favorable weather. The only way to choose a climate with any degree of certainty is to look at the records of the United States Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C.

Even the Weather Bureau records do not give us all the information we need. There are many local variations in climate which are not shown by the records.

Of all the various features of soils, *drainage* is the most likely to be limiting in the United States. We have some well-drained soils which are so infertile as to be practically worthless, but most of our well-drained soils are good soils, and our poorly drained soils are generally difficult to farm profitably.

Good buildings can usually be bought cheaper than they can be built. This is particularly true with present costs of building. This means that a farm with good buildings in good repair is likely to be a better buy than a similar farm with buildings which are inadequate or run-down. The difference in price of the two farms is seldom enough to cover the cost of putting the poor buildings into good condition.

CHECK THESE POINTS WHEN YOU CONSIDER BUYING A FARM

Acreage

Crops
Pasture
Woods
Farmstead, roads, waste, etc.
Total

Location

Kind of road
Amount of travel on road
General condition of roads important to this farm
Accessibility in all seasons
Distance to school
Quality of school
Churches, community organizations
Quality of farms in neighborhood
Distance to electric-light line
Type of neighbors
Residential opportunities

Markets for important products

Climate

Annual rainfall
Growing season rainfall
Average days between killing frosts
Frequency of drought, hail, flood, etc.

Topography

Elevation at the buildings
Effect of topography on ease of cultivation
Effect of topography on air drainage
Effect of topography on erosion
Effect of topography on hauling in and out of barn

Timber

Species
Condition

Soils

Names of types of soil
Acreage of each type
Texture
Lime
Drainage
Natural productivity
Present productivity
Stones
Weeds

Orchard

Acres
Age
Varieties
Condition

Layout

Size and shape of fields
Convenience to farmstead
Obstructions in fields
Condition and adequacy of fences

Building layout

Location with respect to highway
Location with respect to each other
Site of farmstead

Houses

Present use
General condition and appearance
Foundation
Roof
General arrangement
Number of rooms
Lights
Running water
Bathroom
Furnace
Hardwood floors
Other features

Check These Points When You Consider Buying a Farm—(*Continued*)

Barns

Present use
Dimensions
General condition and appearance
Foundation
Roof
General arrangement
Adequacy
Lights
Running water
Drinking cups
Concrete floor
Modern stanchions
Other features

Water supply

House
Barn
Pasture
Spray
Irrigation

Amount of taxes

Productive capacity

Acreage and expected yield of the different crops
Number of each kind of stock that can be carried

Getting Control of Capital. A big problem in starting farming is capital. To finance an average farm in 1950, including stock and tools, requires about $25,000. If one wishes to be a better-than-average farmer it takes more capital than this. To get control of this capital is a considerable problem. Farmers have done this by a number of different methods:

1. Inheritance or gift.
2. Working at some job other than farming to save money.
3. Working on the home farm; gradually working into the business, and eventually buying all or part of the farm.
4. The "hired-man-tenant" method of saving money, and getting established in farming.

Using the "hired-man-tenant" route to farm ownership, a young man works as a hired man until he has obtained some experience, saved a little money, and established a good reputation in the community. Next he may get an opportunity to rent a farm with the landlord furnishing most of the capital. He then gradually accumulates some livestock and equipment. After he has accumulated enough livestock and equipment to run a farm, he may have an opportunity to buy a farm, borrowing all or most of the purchase price.

This method of acquiring control of the capital to farm may appear slow and difficult, but experience has shown that young men who start out this way become farm owners as early as those who start by any other route, or earlier. Those who have started by taking another job to save money have commonly been disappointed by the small amount of their savings at the end of a number of years in the other job. The young man who starts by the hired-man-tenant route is more likely to make savings, since he is under more pressure to do so.

Most young men starting farming need to borrow some money. An important question is where to borrow it. For the financing of a farm mortgage the most common single source of credit is private individuals. It is important to keep this in mind because this type of credit receives little publicity. We hear much about credit from banks and government agencies, and often young men are misled into thinking that these are the main sources of farm-mortgage credit.

A common method of financing the purchase of a farm is to get a *first mortgage* from the Federal Land Bank, a local bank, or a life-insurance company; and a *second mortgage* from a local individual. Often the second mortgage is held by the person who sells the farm.

In this method of financing, the confidence of the local individual is of the utmost importance. Individuals commonly make their loans on the basis of their confidence in the person to whom they are lending money. A young man who has established a good reputation in his local community will usually have no difficulty in borrowing all the money he ought to have. Those who have difficulty in borrowing money are the ones who have not established a good reputation.

Summary. Most of the agricultural products of the United States are produced on family-commercial farms. The successful operator of such a farm is a combination of businessman, mechanic, naturalist and scientist, and laborer. Successful farmers have prepared for the job by formal education and work experience.

The most important business factors for success in farming are size of business, yields of crops and production per animal, choice of enterprises, and efficiency in the use of labor and equipment.

If a young man is properly prepared by ability and training, his two big problems in getting started in farming are choosing a farm and getting control of capital. In getting control of capital, a young man's greatest asset is a good reputation in his local community.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Obtain, from your state college of agriculture, recent farm-management publications. Study them to learn the application of the principles discussed in this chapter to your local situation.

2. In your school district, make a count of the number of farms of each of the following kinds: subsistence, residential, part-time, family-commercial, large-scale.

3. Consult representative operators of family-commercial farms in your school district and secure from them judgments as to which of the factors affecting profits discussed in this chapter are most important in limiting the incomes of the farmers in your district.

4. What sources of credit are available to young men starting farming in your area? Have any young men been able to borrow too much for their own good?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Boss, Andrew, and Pond, George A. *Modern Farm Management.* St. Paul: Webb Publishing Company, 1947.

DeGraff, Herrell, and Haystead, Ladd. *The Business of Farming.* Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1949.

Hart, V. B., Bond, M. C., and Cunningham, L. C. *Farm Management and Marketing.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942.

Johnson, Sherman E., *et al. Managing a Farm.* New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1946.

Robertson, Lynn S., and Woods, Ralph H. *Farm Business Management.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1946.

CHAPTER 5

THE RURAL COMMUNITY AND ITS EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Farm and village have too long operated independently on educational matters. The opportunity for cooperation is there for both to seize upon, and the result could be mutually advantageous, as has been demonstrated in various parts of the United States.

The purposes of this chapter are to describe briefly the rural community, to indicate methods of delimiting its boundaries, to present the chief characteristics of the village or hamlet within the community, to point out certain divisive and unifying influences, to see the implications of community structure for education, and to show how community structure may be used in building a better type of rural education.

The Rural-nonfarm Population. Data presented in Table 7 show that the rural-farm population declined about 7.8 million from 1910 to 1950 and that the percentage that this group is of the whole population declined from 34.1 to 15.6. The rural-nonfarm population has, on the other hand, been increasing. During the 1910–1950 period this group increased about 20.6 million and its percentage of the total population grew from 19.6 to 25.6.

This rural-nonfarm population includes all persons who live outside cities or other incorporated places having 2,500 or more inhabitants, but who do not live on farms. Some of these persons live in small agricultural or manufacturing or suburban places; some in mining or fishing or lumbering or resort places. However, the nonfarm population is not synonomous with the population of these hamlets and villages; only about two-thirds of the former live in such places (as of 1940). Since the population of the hamlets and villages did not change significantly (Table 22) during the 1920-to-1940 decades, much of the increase in the nonfarm group was due to the tendency to build homes along roads leading to and from villages and small cities. This development will have been noticed by any observing person as he travels about the country.

In most sections of the United States the farm families are not congregated in villages, as is true in some old-world countries, but live on dispersed homesteads. The typical American agricultural hamlet or village grew up, therefore, not as a group of farmers living together in a concentrated area, but as a marketing and trading center. A later section will consider these hamlets and villages in greater detail.

As hamlets developed into villages in the course of years, many of these became incorporated, with a system of government that tended to set them off from the farming sections. The unincorporated areas continued under the governmental structure of the town, the township, the magisterial district, the militia district, the election precinct, the "beat," or a similar subdivision of the county.

The Rural Community. The establishment of the incorporated village did not change the essential fact that, especially in the agricultural areas, it must have close business and social relationships with the surrounding farms. In fact, the very life of the village depends in a majority of such cases upon the patronage provided by the farm people. To what extent these interrelationships have developed and how significant they are to rural life may be illustrated from a study made by Kolb in Dane County, Wisconsin. There, the 129 service agencies devoted to merchandising received from the farmers 75.6 per cent of their business as measured in dollars. About 65 per cent of the customers, in terms of families, were on the farms. At the bank 49.7 per cent of the savings and 70.4 per cent of the certificates of deposit were held by farmers. The country provided 52.1 per cent of the high school pupils and board members, 48.5 per cent of church members, and 40 per cent of the officers and members of social and fraternal organizations. While the influence of a village as a trade and service center will naturally vary from one place to another and probably the influence of any particular village will vary from period to period, these figures do help us to visualize the fundamental and essential contributions that farm and village make to each other.[1]

It is evident that the village and its surrounding farm territory provide a physical situation that may be developed into a true community where people in the country and in the village recognize their interdependencies, undertake to develop services of mutual concern, and carry on activities that create and strengthen a cohesive, "common-interest" attitude.

Types of Community Groupings. Naturally, rural hamlets and villages vary as to size of population and as to the nature and the extent of services rendered. As a rough measure of these services, sociologists tend to recognize three groupings: the neighborhood; the community; and the area, or region. Sometimes these are described as primary, secondary, and tertiary communities.

---

[1] Kolb, J. H. *Service Relations of Town and Country.* Research Bulletin No. 58. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1923, pp. 22, 23, 30, 33. Although this study is somewhat old, the conditions it describes still exist and the information it gives is still essentially true.

The *neighborhood*, according to Kolb and Brunner, " . . . is that first group outside the family which has social significance, and which has some sense of local unity. It is conditioned both geographically and psychologically. It is an area of local association and it is a group of primary, personal, or face-to-face contacts."[1]

The neighborhood is usually a hamlet which provides within its patronage area relatively few services: a general store, a garage, a Grange hall, a church, and the like. It usually maintains an elementary school only.

The *community*, according to Sanderson, " . . . consists of the people in a local area tributary to the center of their common interests. The community is the smallest geographical unit of organized association of the chief human activities."[2] It is made up of a village and its surrounding patronage area and ordinarily includes two or more distinct neighborhoods. Usually it maintains a 12-grade school.

While the services made available through the community will vary from place to place, the following list gives an idea as to what is commonly offered in providing what Sanderson, in the definition given above, would call "the chief human activities": (1) Economic services—retail distribution through several types of stores such as grocery, feed, lumber, hardware, etc.; banking; one or more marketing agencies for the products of the community through a stockyard, an elevator, a milk plant, etc. (2) Social and recreational services—one or more luncheon or civic clubs; bridge and similar clubs; a motion-picture house; a baseball or other activity team; sometimes a public park or recreational center. (3) Religious agencies—usually several churches with their affiliated religious organizations for children and young people. (4) Public-service agencies and institutions—a post office with its RFD center; a railway station or other transportation office with its freight and express services; a weekly newspaper; a telephone exchange; a library (frequently); a town hall or other center of local government. (5) Professional services—medicine (general); veterinary medicine; law; the ministry; education;

---

[1] Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940, p. 44.

[2] Sanderson, Dwight. *Locating the Rural Community*. Lesson 158, Cornell Reading Course for the Farm. Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, 1920, p. 417.

etc. (6) Skilled and semiprofessional services of mechanics, carpenters, plumbers, electricians, etc. (7) Cultural opportunities through a woman's club, a literary society, and the like. (8) Educational services through a twelve-grade school and such affiliated activities or groups as the 4-H Club; the Future Farmers of America; the Future Homemakers of America; the PTA; the scouts; the adult-education program; and other special community services.

The *area*, or tertiary community, is, according to Kolb and Brunner, " . . . an area from which families seek the larger center for such specialized services as ready-to-wear clothing, the social services of hospital or clinic, the educational service of a normal or technical school, the sociability service of a good motion picture house, a musical concert or a dramatic performance."[1] Such an area usually has a small city as a center and includes a number of communities together with the neighborhoods, hamlets, and surrounding open-country territory that are a part of the several communities. Its services, in addition to those mentioned by Kolb and Brunner, are likely to include a daily newspaper; one or more medical specialists; a department store; one or more wholesale distributors; one or more chain dry-goods stores; a savings and loan association; and the like. Its central large village or small city will have all the services provided by the "community" but usually on a larger scale and more numerously. Such an area is roughly comparable in size to a county but is frequently not coterminous with it.

The area's central village or city will commonly offer a more extensive educational program than does the community: more curriculums in the high school, especially in the vocational fields; more special services in the way of counseling, health, education for the handicapped, and the like. If the area is made a coordinating, or intermediate, school district, it will plan to make available as many as possible of the special facilities not provided in the neighborhood or community school.[2]

Mapping the Rural Community. In an area such as a county that may include a small city together with several villages and hamlets with their surrounding farm territory, how may the limits of neighborhood, community, or tertiary area be determined?

The first person to work out techniques for doing this was Galpin. In 1915, the University of Wisconsin published a study made by him of one county in that state.[1] Galpin selected twelve of the cities, villages, and hamlets ranging from a population of 75 to one of about 3,200. In these twelve centers he found the following numbers of zones; 12 trade; 11 banking; 7 local newspaper; 12 milk; 12 church; 9 high school; and 4 village library. Through consultation with representatives of each grocery store, bank, milk factory, village newspaper, village clergyman, high school, and library, it was learned which of the homes were connected with the village institutions. The procedure from there on may best be described in Dr. Galpin's own words:

---

[1] Kolb and Brunner, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

[2] As an illustration of what such an area may do educationally, see Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas*. Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1946, p. 155. The counties in states having a county unit of school organization have a similar opportunity, and some of them have made marked progress in expanding the educational program (see Chaps. 19 and 20).

> The trade map was made first by merging the dry goods and grocery maps which nearly coincided. A large piece of corrugated paper board was placed under a copy of the county base map. Each farm home trading at Elkhorn, for example, was marked and then a pin stuck in the spot. A thread was run around the outside of these pins, following from pin to pin so as to include the least amount of territory while enclosing every pin. The thread line became the boundary of the trade zone. After the trade zone of each of the twelve centers was marked out in this way, the common territory where zones overlap, with homes trading at more than one village, was colored alike and called neutral ground. Each community was given its own color. Then round, white seals were used to designate the homes that were found to use the same trade center. In like manner, each set of maps was made in water colors.

Some of Galpin's conclusions are worth noting. For example:

> Accessibility seems to be the largest factor in determining the regular trade center for any farm home. . . .
>
> The trade zones of adjacent centers have a tendency to overlap a little, producing a belt from one to two miles in width of neutral or common trading territory. . . .
>
> These trade zone lines run . . . without regard to the political lines of the township, county, and state. . . .
>
> The trade zones of a county are subject to extension and shrinkage with the growth of village centers in number, size and efficiency. . . .
>
> The foregoing analysis of the use of the leading institutions of each center by the farm population discloses the fact, however, that these institutions are agencies of social service over a comparatively determinable and fixed area of land surrounding each center; that this social service is precisely the same in character as is rendered to those people—whether artisans, employees, or professional persons—who happen to live within the corporate limits of the city or village. . . .
>
> It is difficult, if not impossible, to avoid the conclusion that the trade zone about one of these rather complete agricultural civic centers forms the boundary of an actual, if not legal, community, within which the apparent entanglement of human life is resolved into a fairly unitary system of interrelatedness. The fundamental community is a composite of many expanding and contracting feature communities possessing the characteristic pulsating instability of all real life.[2] . . .

---

[1] Galpin, C. J. *The Social Anatomy of an Agricultural Community*. Research Bulletin No. 34. Madison: Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin, 1915, p. 34.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 5, 6, 8, 16, 17, 18, 19.

Following Galpin's pioneer work described above, other investigators have used different services and somewhat different techniques in widely spread situations in an effort to understand better the nature of community life. The interested reader is referred to such sources as those given in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

Some Characteristics of American Hamlets and Villages. Because hamlets and villages have such an important place in the provision of educational facilities for rural people, it is desirable to know something of their characteristics. In accordance with a frequently accepted terminology, a hamlet is here defined as a place with a population of less than 250; a village, as one with 250 to 2,499 (sometimes subdivided into "small" villages, 250 to 999, and "large" villages, 1,000 to 2,499); a city, as one with 2,500 or over.

Number, Size, and Trends. Information about the number of hamlets and villages of different size is conflicting and somewhat fragmentary. While the United States census has reported the number of incorporated places under 2,500 since 1910 and, in 1940, gave at least partial information regarding certain unincorporated places, it has, as yet, given no official data regarding all places in the rural areas representing an aggregation of people.

Marshall, after studying various sources, has given the data presented in Table 21.

TABLE 21. NUMBER OF UNINCORPORATED AND INCORPORATED HAMLETS AND VILLAGES HAVING A POPULATION UNDER 2,500, 1920 TO 1940[a]

Year	Unincorporated				Incorporated				Total incorporated and unincorporated
	Hamlets	Per cent	Villages	Per cent	Hamlets	Per cent	Villages	Per cent	
1920	62,862	74.1	9,018	10.7	2,436	2.9	10,422	12.3	84,738
1930	52,153	70.0	8,916	11.9	2,982	4.0	10,451	14.1	74,502
1940	55,971	71.6	8,918	11.4	2,847	3.6	10,441	13.4	78,177[b]

[a] Marshall, D. G. "Hamlets and Villages in the United States." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 11, pp. 159–165. This table is constructed from data given in Tables 2–5 and 8.

[b] The Rand McNally *Commercial Atlas* gives figures considerably higher than this. However, these figures include many places that are very small and of little significance for our purpose here.

For purposes of school organization, it is important to know the trends regarding the number of hamlets and villages. Are old hamlets disappearing or new ones developing? Are hamlets growing until they may be classified as villages? Are villages growing into cities? Are the hamlets and villages becoming less influential in the social and economic life of the rural areas of America?

Landis,[1] studying the trends from 1900 to 1930, found that hamlets declined in number as follows: from 1900 to 1910, 2.7 per cent; 1910 to 1920, 23.1 per cent; 1920 to 1930, 14.8 per cent. On the other hand, small villages (250 to 999 population) increased as follows: 1900 to 1910, 20.6 per cent; 1910 to 1920, 1.4 per cent; 1920 to 1930, 0.9 per cent. Large villages increased 18.6 per cent between 1900 and 1910; 6.9 per cent between 1910 and 1920; 3.7 per cent between 1920 and 1930. Places over 2,500 had increased during these same decades by 28.4 per cent, 20.5 per cent, and 13.6 per cent.

The decrease in the number of hamlets down to 1930 was probably due in part to the growing use of the automobile, which enabled farmers to go farther for trading, marketing, and other services. According to Landis,[2] the organization of the rural free delivery, begun in 1895, and the parcel post, begun in 1913, were also factors in making the hamlet less necessary to farmers.

However, Marshall's figures (Table 21) show that the number of unincorporated hamlets increased by 7.3 per cent between 1930 and 1940; the number of unincorporated villages remained practically stationary; while all places under 2,500 increased by 4.9 per cent. These data led Marshall to conclude that

> Contrary to popular opinion, there is much evidence pointing to the fact that these unincorporated hamlets reached their peak around 1920, leveled off between 1920 and 1930, but actually increased in both number and population between 1930 and 1940. Granted, many disappeared in the 1930's and many moved up into the village class, but many new ones came into existence largely because of changing institutional patterns centering around taverns, filling stations and other trade functions. There is little evidence to suggest that they are a vanishing type of population agglomeration. These places, even as the institutions they harbor, have reconditioned themselves and toughened their social character to meet the changing American pattern of living.[3]

The same author gives reasons why hamlets and villages have persisted and will probably continue to do so. His reasons are that they (1) "are the 'neighborhood store,' for country folks"; (2) "provide the educational facilities for a very large proportion of our rural young people"; (3) serve the religious needs of rural people; (4) provide the opportunity to visit, to discuss problems, to secure recreation, and the like; and (5) "are the common meeting ground of the rural and the urban ways of living."[1]

---

[1] Landis, Paul H. "The Number of Unincorporated Places in the United States and Their Estimated Population." *Research Studies*, State College of Washington, Vol. VI, No. 4, 1938, pp. 160–188.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 169.

[3] Marshall, D. G. "Hamlets and Villages in the United States." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 11, p. 161.

Hamlets and villages, as has been shown, change more or less in population over the years and, as a consequence, sometimes move from one classification to another. Marshall found that, between 1930 and 1940, 406 incorporated hamlets increased in size so as to be classified as villages, and 224 lost their incorporated status, while 202 moved into the incorporated group. During this same period there was, according to T. Lynn Smith, a net gain of 288 incorporated villages, taking into account those that moved into the urban group and those formerly urban that slipped back into villages.[2]

Ratcliffe presents evidence that, between 1930 and 1940, the smaller the incorporated place the greater is its liability to lose inhabitants and the larger the place the less is this liability. For the United States as a whole the percentage of each size of hamlet or village that declined was as follows:

All incorporated places	34.1 per cent
2,499–1,000	20.0
999–500	29.7
499–250	39.3
200–1	52.0
499–1	44.7

However, some states did not follow exactly this pattern.[3] Ratcliffe is not contending that size itself is a cause of population change but that "the causes of population changes are, with a moderately high degree of consistency, related to size."[4]

Ratcliffe gives a brief statement as to the causes of growth and decline:

> Half a moment's reflection convinces one that there can be but two direct and immediate causes for the growth or decline of hamlets and villages. One of these is the balance between births and deaths; the other, the balance between *in* and *out* migration. . . . Lists of such factors can readily be made. The establishment of new businesses or industries, or the enlargement of those already in existence, tends to attract new residents while business failures have the opposite effect. . . . A rise in prices of farm products, or the adoption of new agricultural techniques, or the discovery or exploitation of some hitherto undeveloped natural resource, may lead to a rise in the economic prosperity of a population on the land base of some village and thus induce

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 165.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 162, 163.

[3] Ratcliffe, S. C. "Size as a Factor in Population Changes of Incorporated Hamlets and Villages, 1930–40." *Rural Sociology*, Vol. 7, pp. 318–328, especially Table III.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 325.

> new or the enlargement of old enterprises. . . . Other factors which affect migration are all those techniques employed to attract patrons to the business, recreational, and social institutions of hamlets and villages. To the extent that those techniques are successful they make the communities concerned attractive to their own residents and to possible newcomers. Contrariwise, failure to employ such techniques may result in *out* migration.[1]

Since these and related factors are likely to operate differently in different villages, those interested in a particular hamlet or village need to follow the population trends in that place and to appraise those factors that appear to promote growth or to bring about a decline. One should not overlook the fact that, within limits, what the citizens do or do not do will certainly influence the trend in their own community.

Population. Table 22 summarizes information regarding the population of hamlets and villages and the trends from 1920 to 1940. The 17,703,027 population of these places in 1940 was 65.5 per cent of the total rural-nonfarm group. Although there were changes, both of decrease and increase, within the several types of places, the total population remained remarkably stable.

TABLE 22. POPULATION TRENDS IN UNINCORPORATED AND INCORPORATED HAMLETS AND VILLAGES HAVING A POPULATION UNDER 2,500, 1920 TO 1940[a]

Year	Unincorporated				Incorporated				Total population	Per cent
	Hamlets	Per cent	Villages	Per cent	Hamlets	Per cent	Villages	Per cent		
1920	3,464,276	......	5,368,646	......	415,162	.....	8,556,387	.....	17,804,471	
1930	3,093,444	−10.7	5,612,358	4.5	486,204	17.1	8,697,249	1.6	17,889,255	0.5
1940	3,458,472	11.8	4,901,878	−12.6	463,565	−4.7	8,879,112	2.1	17,703,027	−1.0

[a] Marshall, D. G. "Hamlets and Villages in the United States." *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 11, pp. 159–165. This table is constructed from data given in Tables 2–5 and 8. The percentage figure is the increase or decrease for the decade.

Types of Hamlets and Villages. Several types of hamlets and villages exist, and each of these types has certain peculiarities due to the nature of the dominant occupations, the social composition of the population, its economic status, and the like.

The *suburban* village is contiguous to the city and is usually made up of people who earn their living in the city or who man the trade and service agencies of the village. While such a village has a close functional relationship to its larger neighbor, it commonly provides, independently, its educational and social services. Some hamlets and villages may be classified as *resort* places. There are also villages that rely largely for their existence upon some more or less specialized form of *industrial activity:* manufacturing of typewriters, furniture, clocks, or the like; processing of vegetables, fruits, or milk; lumbering; fishing; oil refining; mining; etc. There is the *agricultural* village, located in a farming area and acting as a trade and service center to the farmers of that region. In the larger agricultural villages, especially, there often exists one or more small manufacturing or processing plants. There is no reliable information as to the number of these several types of hamlets and villages, but it is certain that the agricultural type predominates.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 324, 325.

Incorporated vs. Unincorporated Places. Marshall's figures given in Table 21 show that 4.8 per cent of the 58,818 hamlets (under 250 population) were incorporated, while 53.9 per cent of the 19,359 villages (250 to 2,499) were so organized. Of the 17,703,027 persons living in hamlets and villages under 2,500, only 2.6 per cent were in incorporated hamlets while 50.2 per cent were in incorporated villages (Table 22). The foregoing figures are for 1940.

Incorporation is not uniform among the states either as to the conditions governing incorporation or the degree to which this type of organization has developed.[1] In general the older states have been more conservative on this matter. About half the incorporations have taken place since 1890.[2] The main purpose of incorporation may be an ambition to become a town or city, or it may be to make easier the provision of such services as paved and lighted streets or special police protection, or it may be merely to give greater independence in the administration of village government. Incorporation, naturally, tends to set the village off from its contiguous farm territory and thus may make for division between the two groups in what is after all (at least in agricultural areas) a single community composed of farmers and villagers. While incorporation does create a problem in the development of the rural community school, it does not prevent village and farm cooperation for this purpose, as is indicated by the many schools of this type that have been created in recent decades irrespective of corporate limitations.

Galpin, many years ago, called attention to the importance of "rurban" relationships and suggested the possibility of creating a new political unit[3] out of the village or city and its contiguous territory, somewhat on the pattern of the New England town. However, this proposal seems not to have been implemented in terms of recent conditions and may remain for many years as a suggestive hypothesis in any political reorganization that gives consideration to sociological factors. It is obvious that numerous problems are involved in such a proposal.

---

[1] For information regarding the number of incorporated hamlets and villages of different size in the various states see Ratcliffe, *op. cit.*, p. 321. Four states have no such incorporations.

[2] Bailey, W. L. "The Village." *The Americana.* New York, 1928, Vol. 28, pp. 87–90.

[3] Galpin, Charles J. *Rural Social Problems.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1924, Chap. XV.

Financial Ability. In 1947, the median income of the rural-nonfarm family was 2.1 per cent below that of the entire nation (see Table 13); that of the farm family was about one-third less; while that of the city was 13.4 per cent more. Furthermore, the income of the rural-nonfarm family was more concentrated, there being 42.5 per cent of the families in the $2,000-to-$3,999 bracket as compared with 40.7 per cent of city families and 26.5 per cent of the farm families. While 56.2 per cent of the farm families had an income below $2,000, only 36.2 per cent of the nonfarm and 29.4 per cent of the urban families were in these lower income brackets. On the other hand, a smaller percentage (1.5) of nonfarm families had an income of $10,000 and over than did either the farm (2.2) or the urban (2.7) families.

These data suggest another reason why many villages are reluctant to cooperate with farm people in developing a rural community school. Whatever the situation may be in individual communities (and there are cases where the farm wealth exceeds that of the village), the advantage in such cooperation in the nation as a whole would be with the farmer. To offset this the village should recognize that farm people contribute much to its prosperity through the trade they provide. To equalize the burden for school support as between all rural and urban areas, the states are moving at unequal rates toward the development of state equalization funds (see Chapter 25).

Age Distribution. In 1950, the rural-nonfarm and farm groups had 11.9 per cent and 11.4 per cent, respectively, of their population under five years of age as compared with 10.4 per cent in the cities. The former had 26.5 per cent and 31.2 per cent of those five to nineteen years of age, while the cities had 20.6 per cent only. Thus the rural areas had a considerably larger proportion of its population in the school age and preschool age groups. On the other hand, the cities had 51.6 per cent of their population in the period of greatest vigor, twenty to fifty-four, as compared with 45.9 per cent in the rural-nonfarm and 41.3 per cent in the farm group. Of those sixty-five and over, the percentage in the urban and rural-nonfarm areas was the same (8.3 per cent), followed by the farms with 7.5 per cent.[1] The reader is referred to Table 9 and the accompanying text for information regarding changes during the decades 1920 to 1940 and 1940 to 1950.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *1950 Census of Population, Preliminary Reports.* Series PC-7, No. 1, p. 6.Washington, D.C., 1951.

Occupational Status. Table 11 shows the distribution of employed workers, in 1940, according to six major categories. Workers in agriculture comprise a relatively small percentage of the whole. Trade and service account for 38.5 per cent of the workers and manufacturing for 24.1 per cent. The village in the rural-nonfarm areas provides most of the professional services, such as law, medicine, and the ministry, for both farm and rural-nonfarm people.

Divisive and Unifying Influences. Within any community many forces are at work that make for harmony or disharmony among its citizens.

Among the forces divisive in nature are (1) a chamber of commerce in the village that fails to recognize the important place the farmer has in the economic development of the entire community; (2) churches that emphasize denominationalism with consequent rivalry for membership and prestige; (3) "first" families that are conscious of their superior social or financial status; (4) women's clubs that are undemocratic in the selection of members; (5) other clubs for men or women that emphasize the exclusive nature of their membership; and (6) incorporation of hamlets or villages that tends to erect a barrier between village and farm areas. The list might be extended. Some of these tend to divide town and country; others exert divisive influences among village people themselves.

The school has frequently been a source of misunderstanding between village and farm people. Apart from the financial problem described in a previous section of this chapter, village residents have feared that sharing the control of their school might "water down" their educational program. On the other hand, farmers have not infrequently feared that a consolidated or centralized school district might not give them their proportional share in the control of the education of their children and that, as a result, the kind of educational program they want for rural children will not be provided. Some farmers have objected to the transportation of their children, especially the younger ones, and a few fear the effect the village may have on the ideals of children. Probably as influential as any factor is the dislike on the part of both villager and farmer to change from something they know to something they do not know.

Our concern here is with those forces that affect the quality of village-farm cooperation for education. The school itself is perhaps the most powerful of the forces for integration once it can get established on a community basis. When farm and village children sit in the same classes, participate in the same extraclass activities including athletics, and share the services of the nurse or the counselor, natural restraints or misunderstandings are likely to break down. Until the community school is organized the village can do much toward a better understanding by treating liberally on matters of tuition those children from the farm that attend high school in the village and taking particular care to see that those who do come to school are made to feel at home.

There are other forces that may contribute to a better understanding between farm and village. A community council that shows concern in improving the opportunities for farm people in recreation, in library service, and in health facilities is in a strategic situation. Arrangements by the village or its chamber of commerce to see that farm families have a place to relax when they come to town for trading could go far to developing right attitudes. A village that arranges for the use of its fire-fighting apparatus at any farm without delay and a doctor who is willing to go to a distant farm on a mud road are both unifying influences.

Hamlets and Villages Differ. The foregoing pages show that about two-thirds of the rural-nonfarm population in 1940 lived in hamlets and villages. In that year there were 78,177 such places with a total population of a little under 18 million. Of this number of places, 75.2 per cent were hamlets (under 250) and 24.8 per cent were villages (250 to 2,499). About 5 per cent of the hamlets and almost 54 per cent of the villages were incorporated. While some hamlets were disappearing, others were rising; some hamlets have grown to be villages and some villages have grown to be cities. There is, however, little evidence that these rural centers are on the way out. They will continue to be important in rural life in the future as they have been in the past. In financial ability as measured by income the rural-nonfarm population is, throughout the nation, considerably better off than the farm but not so well off as the city.

While this information gives a general picture as to certain characteristics of hamlets and villages, the thoughtful reader will realize that few, if any, villages will, in all aspects, conform to the pattern presented. These places will vary as to type; occupational emphasis; population trends; age distribution; social composition; the cultural, educational, and economic level of the population; and the like. While the general pattern is useful for the purpose of understanding the educational problems that face places of this type, each hamlet and village needs to be studied individually in order to appraise its status and trends.

Educational Implications of Community Structure and Organization. What educational meanings lie in the various analyses of status and trends presented in the foregoing pages of this chapter?

Some Guiding Principles. We may find a better answer to this question if we first state some principles that seem to apply.

1. If an educational program is to perform its fullest service to a community, it should be based upon the experiences and the needs of the people it serves. This does not mean that the offerings of the school will

be largely different in one community than in another. There will be many needs that are common to every community. However, even in one common need—learning to be a good citizen—one community may have fine traditions as to what constitutes good citizenship while in another community these ideals may have to be developed.

2. Education is a continuous process and is, therefore, influenced to greater or lesser degree by every experience. Community life itself is educative and, through the activities of its homes, its organizations, and its service groups, teaches children much about problems of living. There people live and work together in frequent face-to-face contacts through church, school, store, and lodge. There they meet various problems, discuss them, develop conflicting views, and reconcile those views into the best program of action that seems practicable. There they learn to be tolerant or continue to be intolerant of the ideas of others; show an inquiring mind on important matters or continue to hold stubbornly to old beliefs. There they develop friends or make enemies. In short, there, in the community, they seek more of the "good life" according to their vision; there is where the America of the future, in its essentials, is being made, for it is there that children and young people are developing knowledges, attitudes, ideals, beliefs, and habits that are likely to affect profoundly how they will deal with life problems when they become adults.

3. But a community need not be static; in fact, it is likely to move ahead or to deteriorate depending upon the forces that are at work within it. One of the most powerful forces is the school, and this agency can and should strengthen the desirable elements in community life and seek to overcome its deficiencies. Its offerings may emphasize problems of sanitation, of nutrition, of standards of living, of economic improvement, of good government, and the like without neglecting those fundamental knowledges that will always be expected of the school. Where community cooperation is lacking or where divisive influences are prevalent, the school may and should become a unifying influence. As it provides services to the community through the gymnasium and athletic field, the auditorium, the agricultural shop, the industrial shop, the cafeteria, the home-economics suite, or other facility, people are brought together in a neutral atmosphere where common interests are emphasized and differences of opinion or animosities, even, may be forgotten.

What actually happens in the community will depend much upon the quality of its leadership. Those in charge of the schools have an especially important role calling for an enlightened, democratic, socially intelligent leadership.

4. A school district that represents a socioeconomic community,

within which people have common interests of many kinds and in which they have frequent face-to-face contacts, has an advantage in developing community thinking and acting on the educational program. Within such an area the majority of people are apt to know each other; many call each other by their first names; wherever they meet—at church, store, lodge, or Grange hall—they may exchange ideas on matters of common interest, including education. When they do come together to debate educational matters there is a more complete background of understanding. This does not mean that there will be no differences of opinion or that the debate may not at times be acrimonious. Not infrequently the bitterest of feuds are found in areas of restricted size. What it does mean is that in such a community the chances are improved for developing educational understanding and for recognizing the common concerns that make effective action possible. What really should be guarded against is too much thinking alike, resulting in complacency, followed by stagnation and ultimate deterioration of the educational program. It is one of the responsibilities of educational leadership to appraise the trends and from time to time to place challenging problems before citizens.

5. The opportunities for mutual stimulation of community and school that are implicit in the situation described will doubtless be more completely realized if there is some organization that has responsibility for utilizing the resources of both. Usually the organization responsible for the administration of the community's regular governmental activities cannot be depended on for this purpose. The governing body and its designated officials have a sufficiently large responsibility in determining policy and in enforcing policy as regards the protection of life and property, maintaining roads and streets, collecting revenues, providing welfare services, and the like. That governing body may and should cooperate through whatever agency is utilized.

Increasingly, a community council is performing the service needed. Such a group, composed of representatives of the school, the village, town or township council or selectmen, the health and welfare services, the churches, the chamber of commerce, the service clubs such as Rotary and Kiwanis, the home bureau, the farm bureau, and the like, may well represent the various interests within the community. Together they discuss the needs of the community, determine what might be wise to do, and suggest to various agencies what their part may appropriately be. One major outcome of this community council may well be a school-community program (Chapter 17).

The Utilization of Community Structure in Rural School Organization. Each of the three types of socioeconomic units described earlier in this chapter—the neighborhood, the community, and the area—is of significance in the establishment of local schools and has implications as to the size and the nature of the local school district.

The National Commission on School District Reorganization has suggested that a satisfactory school district should be large enough that there will be at least 175 pupils and 7 teachers in the kindergarten and first six grades. A more desirable minimum would be 300 pupils with 12 or more teachers. In grades 7 through 12, the enrollment should not be fewer than 300 pupils, with at least 12 teachers. In order to provide numerous administrative services at a reasonable cost the enrollment should be at least 1,200.[1] Additional services such as attendance supervision, specialized supervision, the education of the exceptional child, and specialized health services frequently can be provided economically only through an intermediate district.

The figures given above are based on the assumption that each elementary school serves a neighborhood or small community center and each high school serves a larger community. While these figures are considerably above the average present practice as to elementary and secondary enrollments, they represent goals that should be sought wherever possible.

Administrative units that are to provide the suggested enrollments obviously cannot be established in hamlets (under 250) nor in small villages (250 to 1,000) when they maintain their own independent school systems. It may be possible to do so when the administrative unit includes a small village, two or more hamlets, and the contiguous farm territory—all representing a rural community of the secondary type.

Such factors as racial and national composition and the age of parents will affect the proportion of children of school age to the total population within any proposed administrative unit, and these factors will differ in their influence from place to place. We may nevertheless use the figure of one child in school for each five of the population[2] in making a rough estimate of the total population needed to justify the establishment of an administrative unit.

In 1948 approximately 60 per cent of those attending school were in the kindergarten and first six grades, while 40 per cent were in the last six grades.[3] A district with a high school of 300 would then have an elementary enrollment of approximately 450 (assuming that the district need not provide high school facilities for nonresidents). This total of 750 in all grades would suggest that there should be a total population of approximately 3,750 in the territory served by the school. If an enrollment of 1,200 is sought, then the total population will be approximately 6,000.

---

[1] Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, p. 131.

[2] In 1947 this was the approximate ratio of children enrolled in school to the total population. It will be recognized, of course, that this ratio will change from period to period depending upon the birth rate, the death rate, the holding power of the school, etc.

[3] This proportion will, of course, change as the high school is able to hold a larger number of pupils through to graduation.

Not every identifiable community should be an administrative school unit. Some are too small to provide the enrollment necessary for an effective school, and the inclusion of two or more communities in a single district is therefore defensible. What may be done is illustrated in Figure 3. Here a new central school was formed by combining a community having a 12-grade system with one having 10 grades. When plans were first drawn, the smaller community desired its own central district. After its plans were twice rejected by the commissioner of education, it decided to join the larger community. In the fourteen years since the establishment of the central district, the two communities have learned to pool their efforts in developing an effective school system. Any feelings for separateness that originally existed seem to have died out.

A question of vital importance arises as soon as a school district of approximately the desired size is proposed: Should all schools within the district be discontinued, assuming that transportation makes this feasible, or should an elementary school be maintained in any important hamlet that is a part of the district? Working upon the theory that the school is an important agency for developing a more effective community life, an elementary school of as many grades as the enrollment justifies for certain identifiable neighborhoods can well be defended. Such a neighborhood school enables parents to visit the school readily; it permits the teachers to live within the hamlet and to become a part of its life; it may provide a small library, a combined auditorium and gymnasium, a playground, an industrial arts shop, and the like, as means of serving citizens in this particular type of small community. For other services—a health unit, a guidance center, a home-economics or agricultural department, a cafeteria for community dinners, and the like—the citizens of the hamlet would naturally go to the larger center where the high school of the district is located. How this may be worked out is shown also in Figure 3.

However, not every neighborhood or hamlet should have a school located in it. To provide one is sometimes to neglect other pertinent factors, such as the lack of a real neighborhood spirit, nearness to the main school, or an enrollment so small that adequate teachers cannot be provided economically. On the other hand, remoteness from the main school may warrant the continuance of the small school under the leadership of the larger district.

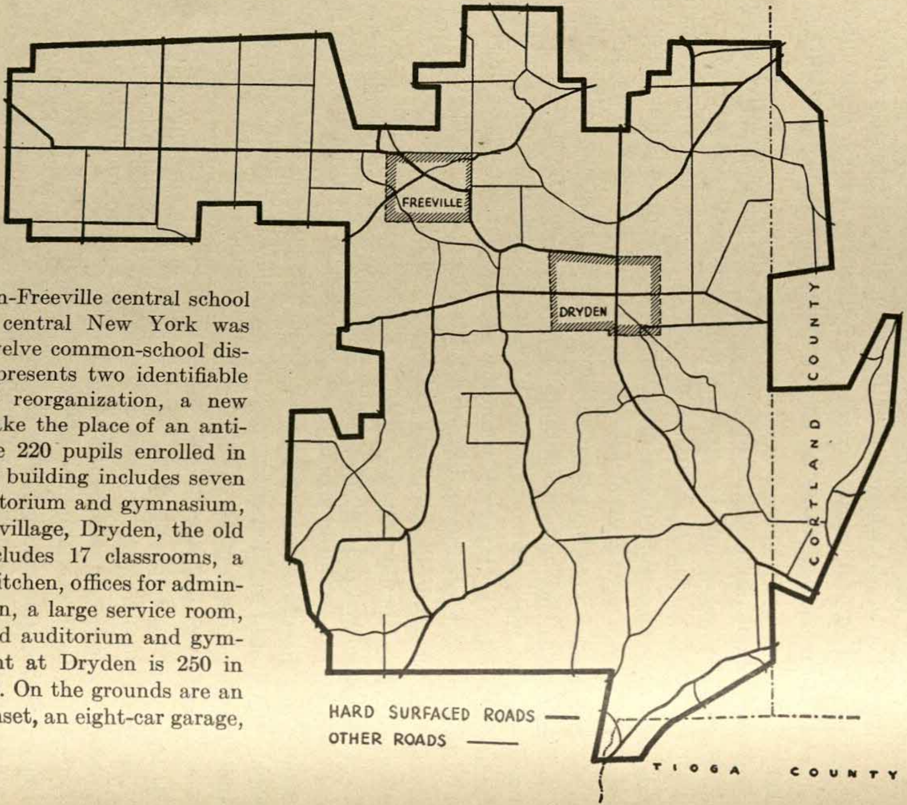

FIG. 3. A branch school in the Dryden-Freeville central school district. When this new district in central New York was organized in 1936, two villages and twelve common-school districts were combined. The district represents two identifiable socioeconomic areas. Soon after the reorganization, a new building was erected at Freeville to take the place of an antiquated one. In 1949–1950, there were 220 pupils enrolled in grades 1 to 6 of this school. This new building includes seven classrooms, a library, a combined auditorium and gymnasium, a kitchen, and an office. At the other village, Dryden, the old building was remodeled and now includes 17 classrooms, a home-economics suite, a cafeteria and kitchen, offices for administration, music, and physical education, a large service room, a library, an art room, and a combined auditorium and gymnasium. The present (1950) enrollment at Dryden is 250 in grades 1 to 6 and 293 in grades 7 to 12. On the grounds are an agricultural building, a three-room quonset, an eight-car garage, and a fair amount of play apparatus.

Some Illustrations of School Districts Defined in Socioeconomic Terms. The consolidated school district, found in all states except those where the county[1] is the local district, is based upon the socioeconomic concept. Such a district generally brings together a number of smaller districts that center about a hamlet or village. Sometimes, however, there has been a tendency to place in consolidated districts territory with considerable wealth where transportation is not too difficult and to leave out territory with little wealth, many children, and roads that are difficult to traverse.

In 1919, Illinois passed a law for community consolidated districts and community high school districts which provided that "any contiguous and compact territory, whether in the same or different townships . . . might be formed into a community district by a majority vote in the territory concerned."[2] Numerous such districts have been organized.

The New York rural school survey of 1920 to 1922 recommended the establishment of community school districts[3] and, although a district with this name was not authorized, the same result was secured through a revitalization of the central rural school district act of 1914. This act provides that the commissioner of education may lay out central districts in territory not within a city school district having a population of more than 5,000.[4] The territory so laid out "shall include only territory of suitable size conveniently located for the attendance of pupils and having a sufficient number of pupils for the establishment of a central school."[5] While no specific reference is made to a socioeconomic area in the establishment of the boundaries of such district, such factors are taken into account, particularly for high school attendance.[6] Down to July, 1951, 426 such districts had been established.

In a number of states where programs are under way for improving the local school district, this socioeconomic concept is recognized (Chapter 19).

[1] In the county unit a similar grouping is called an "attendance area." It is not, of course, a separate school district.

[2] Pearson, Irving A. "The History of School District Organization in Illinois." *Your School District*, p. 157.

[3] Works, George A. "The Community Unit." *Rural School Survey of New York State: Administration and Supervision.* Ithaca, N.Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1923, pp. 543–576.

[4] In 1950 the law was amended to include cities under 10,000 population and "not contained within a city district having a full valuation of taxable real estate per public school pupil residing in the district of more than $15,000."

[5] *Education Law, 1947*. Bulletin 1345. Albany: University of the State of New York, Sec. 1801(2).

[6] Butterworth, Julian E. "A State Rebuilds the Schools of Its Rural Areas." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 14, No. 7, March, 1941, pp. 411–421.

In 1944, a study was initiated in New York looking to the establishment of a type of cooperating, or intermediate, district that would be more effective than the existing supervisory district. Such socioeconomic factors as hospital service, theaters, banking, daily newspaper, and stores selling hardware, dress clothing, etc., were used as measures.[1] The law is a permissive one, and thus far there has not been time to get any such district established.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In the rural community in which you work, or in one in which you are interested, study the various social and trade factors that will enable you to lay out approximately the area that might be made into an effective local school unit. Use techniques employed by the writers whose studies are included in the bibliography. In lieu of such specific data, you can approximate the socioeconomic area by consulting the principal, the county superintendent, the banker, and one or more other businessmen in that general area. Give special attention to the territory from which pupils come to the village high school. How large is the population in the area you have included? How large is the school enrollment? What have been the population trends for the past twenty years, and what factors now seem likely to influence these trends in the future?

2. Does the school enrollment in this area meet the desirable minimum standard suggested by the National Commission on School District Reorganization? If this area that you have laid out does not have enough pupils to justify a high school, how would you make such facilities available?

3. In the area you have laid out, what changes in roads may, in the not too distant future, suggest that adjacent areas might wisely be made a part of your district?

4. How far does this socioeconomic area that you have laid out conform to existing political lines, *e.g.*, townships and counties?

5. In this area would you discontinue outlying schools and transport the pupils to one center or would you continue to maintain some of the smaller ones? Why? If there are two or more hamlets or villages within your suggested district, would you keep a school in each? Why?

6. Consult the latest census report (using, where available, those sections that present the data by counties or townships), other official documents, local officers, etc., and secure data on such matters as the following: the number of farm and nonfarm residents; the number of persons, by sex, employed in farming, housework, and other vocations; the composition of the population as regards age distribution, sex, national and social groups, and the like; the size of farms and the value of their products; the character of the dwelling houses; the percentage of families owning automobiles; the percentage of homes having running water, flush toilets, a radio, a telephone, electricity, etc. Keep these data for use with problems suggested in later chapters.

---

[1] Schultz, Clarence. "Boundaries of Proposed New-type Intermediate Districts." *The Intermediate School District in New York State: Special Studies.* Bulletin 1356. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1948, pp. 13–42. An atlas of the 65 proposed intermediate districts with accompanying data is available in the library of the State Education Department, Albany, and of Cornell University, Ithaca.

7. What educational problems are suggested to you by all of the foregoing data?

8. What problems in making your community a better and more prosperous one are suggested by those data? To which of these may the school program be expected to make some contribution?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Establishing the Boundaries of the Rural Community

Brunner, Edmund de S., and Kolb, J. H. *Rural Social Trends.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933, Chap. 4.

Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946, Chap. 14.

Sanderson, Dwight. *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942, Chap. 13.

American Villages and Village Life

Brunner, Edmund de S., *Village Communities.* New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1927.

———, *et al. American Agricultural Villages.* New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1927.

Kolb, J. H., and Brunner, E. de S. *A Study of Rural Society.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940, Chaps. 4 and 5.

Landis, Paul H. *The Number of Unincorporated Places in the United States and Their Estimated Populations.* State College of Washington, 1938, *Research Studies,* Vol. VI, No. 4, pp. 160–188.

Morgan, Arthur E. *The Small Community.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942.

Poston, Richard W. *Small Town Renaissance.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950.

Sanderson, Dwight. *Locating the Rural Community.* Cornell Reading Course for the Farm, Lesson 158. Ithaca, N.Y.: New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, 1920, pp. 415–436.

———. *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942, Chap. 12.

Taylor, Carl, *et al. Rural Life in the United States.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949, Chap. 5.

CHAPTER 6

RESOURCE-USE EDUCATION IN THE RURAL SCHOOLS

Education is basic to economic and social well-being. What the schools teach and how they teach it are the matters of primary importance. Better living by everybody, a worthy objective of education, depends upon the physical well-being, attitudes, appreciations, knowledge, and skill of the people, the abundance of natural resources, and the use man makes of them. These are the stuff of which education is made.

The rural people, their institutions, the unique qualities and experiences in rural living, and gifts of nature, both exhaustible and inexhaustible or renewable, are ready resources for instructional programs in rural schools. Furthermore, the elimination of economic and social deficiencies is a desirable objective of education.

Resource-use education gives meaning and usefulness to the traditional tool subjects and relates them to life needs and interests. This philosophy of education and its practice are the subject matter of this chapter.

Education Basic to Economic and Social Progress. The attainment of a desirable economic and social life involves the use of many resources and the solution of many problems. Many individuals and agencies have their respective responsibilities. The government, local, state, and Federal, can do, and has done, much to conserve our natural and human resources and to aid people to help themselves. But the crux of progress and well-being lies in the quality of the people working together for their own social, economic, and spiritual advancement. Education in large measure determines the quality of the people.

Education is the only sure road to self-respect and freedom. The complications of present-day culture demand that those who live in it keep abreast of it, not only that they may survive individually, but that they may not retard the advancement of the group through their inability to cooperate.

Education and Economic Well-being. Economic progress without education is inconceivable. Fundamentally two factors are involved in the creation of wealth—natural resources and human labor and skill (including ideals). Capital is essential but is the product of those two factors. Natural resources can be used wisely, but some of them cannot be increased and others can be increased only if man acts wisely. Wise use depends upon what people know, believe, and do. It follows then that wealth and well-being depend upon the knowledge, skill, ideals, attitudes, character, physical fitness, and morale of the people.

"Nations have grown rich and powerful in the absence of outstanding physical resources . . . others have remained poor and backward in the presence of unusual natural resources. . . . A carefully planned and administered system of education significantly increases the intelligence and efficiency of labor."[1] To eliminate poverty people must be capable of self-help. Ignorance is the enemy of self-help. Education is the *sine qua non* of economic prosperity.

The Function of the School. The school, of course, is the chief educational agency. But it is not sufficient merely to have schools available and the children attending them. The kind and character of instruction given is equally important. The school must be more than an institution for training children in subject matter that will enable them to climb the educational ladder to higher academic levels. Its program should be indigenous to the needs of its pupils and community.

It is a function of the school to produce and sustain good living, to make available a knowledge of important facts, to impart and strengthen ideals, and to establish basic understandings of the relationship between man and his environment. The school should not specialize in ready-made solutions to problems; it should develop "problem solvers." If it does that, the people will develop solutions that no curriculum maker could have foreseen.

Some Basic Factors in Well-being. Better living should be the aim of any society. In a democratic society such as ours in the United States, better living is not an abstraction; it is tangibly measured in terms of what happens to each individual, to each neighborhood, to each community, to each state and regional division, to the nation, and to the world as a community of human beings.

What is involved in the matter of better living for everybody? Many things are important; among them would certainly be (1) natural resources, the soil, minerals, water, forests, plants, wild life, domesticated animals, and climate; (2) government in its many ramifications, its rules of economic fair play, its stimulation and direction of economic activities, its establishment and protection of individual rights and privileges, its services for promotion of the general welfare, and its protection of national security; (3) community customs, relationships, institutions, and ideals of cooperation; (4) the cultural patterns of the people, including their evaluation of the worth and dignity of an individual, their ideals of family life, their concepts of cooperation, their religious principles and taboos, their arts and crafts; (5) the characteristics of the people themselves, including their physical inheritance, their health, their family relationships, and their knowledge and skill.

---

[1] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. *Education and Economic Well-being in American Democracy.* Washington, D.C., 1940, pp. 8–9.

What man does about all these factors determines his economic and social well-being. Since they are the stuff of which life is made, they are of primary importance to education. Teaching of skills and matters depending only on rote memory and parrotlike recitation, not related to life situations and objectives, is dead weight to good living and individual worth and dignity. The acquisition of the three R's, basic to communication among human beings and to an understanding of relationships, had better take place with reference to matters of vital importance to the learners in terms of their experiences and life needs than in terms of vicarious experiences and abstractions so often insisted upon.

Defining and Classifying Resources. Resources may be defined as those aspects or phases of man's endowment and environment upon which people depend for aid and support.[1] Resources as here defined are means to an end, the end being human welfare. Usually, the means depend upon the people themselves, their physical environment, and their cultural practices and institutions. Thus resources are not merely physical or those generally classified as land. It is true, nevertheless, that physical environment influences human behavior and sets the outer limits to human achievements; within those outer limits there are alternatives between which men may choose and do choose according to their knowledge and purposes. The fact that there are choices is a basic reason for an understanding of resources, or their lacks, as fundamental in building an educational program.

Classifying Resources. A classification of resources was indicated in the immediately preceding section. In brief, all resources may be classified as (1) natural aspects, or "land"; (2) cultural aspects, or "capital"; (3) human aspects, or "labor."[2]

So far as production of goods and services are concerned there are always primary or original factors, and secondary or derived factors, both of which are accompanied by certain conditioning factors of an original or derived nature.

---

[1] Zimmerman, Erich W. "What We Mean by Resources." *Scientists Look at Resources.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, School of Education, University of Kentucky, Vol. XX, No. 4, June, 1948, pp. 10–33.

[2] *Ibid.*

Among the original factors are natural resources and the native abilities and drives of the people concerned. From these original gifts there come many derived benefits through what man himself does by virtue of what he has discovered and in the absence of political, economic, or religious obstructions he has been able to make use of. Chief among the derived benefits are the means of production such as tools, engines, machines, factories, residences, cities, ports, canals, railroads, highways, dams, power lines, cables, telephone and telegraph lines, radio, television, irrigation, drainage, improved plants and animals through breeding techniques, and improved soils; and increased human capacities through education, training, experience, and improved health.

The factors which condition or limit human progress are the attitudes, customs, and beliefs of the people themselves, and such matters as climate (usually greatly exaggerated, especially within the continental limits of the United States), topography, location, and configuration. Other factors, largely man-made, that condition progress are the agencies of commerce and finance, governmental ideals and institutions, church, school, state of industrial arts, credit, accumulated knowledges, ethics, and the level of morals.

Obstacles and Handicaps. There are, of course, certain handicaps or obstacles that have to be reckoned with or if possible overcome. Among them are certain natural manifestations: catastrophes such as storms, floods, tidal waves, earthquakes, pestilence, drought, insect pests, disease, poisonous plants, and destructive animals. The human negative elements are plain unadulterated "cussedness" (which is probably a product of environment), lack of foresight, ignorance, stupidity, and greed. The obstacles due to human error, stupidity, or greed are such matters as denuded mountainsides, erosion, silted and polluted streams and harbors, depleted mineral reserves, lost strains of fauna and flora, destroyed and extinct birds and animals, the "dead hand of the past," vested but unearned privileges or legal rights, threats of stronger neighbors causing diversion of instrumental wealth into unproductive channels, business cycles, racial conflicts, class struggle, and war.

A Catalog of Resources. Among the resources that all schools should consider as available for their use in their instructional programs are the following: (1) homes in the community; (2) the school; (3) community organizations; (4) agencies for health welfare; (5) means of communication; (6) government; (7) professional and other services; (8) cultural heritage; (9) sources of historical knowledge; (10) nature; (11) natural resources; (12) farms in the community; (13) industries in the community; (14) farm service occupations; (15) other occupational services and activities.[1]

Natural Resources as Educational Agenda. A few matters of fact about man's relationship to natural resources should be of primary consideration in any educational program. All animal life, including human beings, is dependent upon the soil for life itself. All animals live upon plants or upon other animals that live upon plants. Man is an animal that lives upon both plants and other animals. All plants grow from the soil and none of them has any more life-giving nourishment than it obtains from the air, the sunlight, and the qualities of the soil in which it grows. Soils that produce animal foods must contain certain elements or they will not grow the plants or if they do the plants will be deficient in elements necessary to life and health. Among these elements are calcium, potassium, phosphorus, magnesium, iron, sulphur, copper, manganese, zinc, iodine, boron, cobalt, sodium, and chlorine.[2] Some of the elements need to be present only in infinitesimal or minute quantities, but they are absolutely essential. It is not certain that all of the elements in soil and plant life essential to health or even life itself have been discovered.

People who move to cities do not escape their dependence upon the soil or their allegiance to its conservation. Conservation education is a matter of primary concern to city and rural people alike. It may be less obvious in cities than in rural areas, but it is of no less importance.

Modern civilization, especially its industrial aspects and modern mechanized agriculture, is based upon the utilization of coal, iron, oil, and other mineral products, and upon water resources and products of the forests. What is done about these resources will determine the welfare of future generations.

Principles Concerning Natural Resources. Certain principles regarding our natural resources are available to guide the formulation and practice of educational procedures throughout our nation. The following statements of principles have been developed by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association:[3]

---

[1] Clark, Lois M. "Technics for Discovering Community Resources," *Community Resources in Rural Schools*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1939, Chap. II, pp. 18–30.

[2] Tennessee Valley Authority, Department of Agricultural Relations. *Food at the Grass Roots*. Knoxville, Tenn., 1947, p. 25.

[3] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Large Was Our Bounty*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1948, Chap. IV, pp. 44–68.

1. Some resources as air, water and sunlight are inexhaustible; some such as minerals, oil, and natural gas are exhaustible; some such as forests, wildlife, and soil are exhaustible, but are, within limits, renewable.

2. Each part of the natural environment is interrelated and interdependent with other parts. Man, in using the natural environment, must recognize and be guided by those interrelationships.

3. The natural environment if undisturbed by man, tends to move toward a balance or equilibrium. To satisfy his needs, man must disturb the natural balance; but, whenever possible, he must attempt to establish a new balance.

4. The way man uses soil is fundamental to the quality of his living and to the maintenance of a continuously satisfactory standard of living.

5. Water is an inexhaustible resource. Locally it may be sharply limited or unavailable. It is necessary for man's own use, for growth of plants and animals, for industrial processes, for production of power which can be used to conserve exhaustible coal, oil, and natural gas resources.

6. Forests are a renewable resource; forests preserve soil, hold underground water, shelter wildlife, supply material for man's use, and add beauty to the landscape. Forests must be protected from fires, insects, disease, and grazing animals. Their use should not exceed their growth.

7. Wildlife is a renewable resource of wide significance for commerce and recreation. It can be held in continuing supply through maintaining proper environmental balance and regulation of "take" or harvest.

8. Mineral resources are exhaustible and only through wise and careful use can the supply be maintained for use.

9. The natural scenic resources have great aesthetic, social, recreational, and economic value. They should be protected from careless destruction.

Government as a Resource. That ours is a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people" is an oft-repeated phrase, but it is by no means a trite one. It is doubtful that its full meaning is yet understood. Fundamentally, we have a people's government whether looked at from the local community, the state, or the nation. Since our government is ultimately responsible to the people, being a government by ballot, it has long been considered essential that the electorate should be informed.

Education has been considered as the strong right arm of democratic government. Schools supported by public taxation and subject to public control are the agencies through which democratic government undertakes to perpetuate itself.

It is doubtful that most public school officials, including teachers, fully realize the extent to which the public schools have been established for the purpose of perpetuating responsible, representative, democratic government. Certainly public education has many purposes, but none is superior to the education of citizens who understand the purposes, organization, and structure of government as it was conceived and is operated in our country.

The means of understanding government in this country are readily available. Each community, municipality, county, and state is a ready laboratory for studying its operation and accomplishments. It should be a matter of first concern from the earliest public school experience to the last.

Governmental organization, activities, and agencies that are especially available for firsthand study in community school are the following: (1) seats of government, county courthouse, town hall or municipal building, state capitol, polling places, highway patrol centers, courts, welfare agencies, school board offices, post office, or any other governmental headquarters accessible; (2) governmental processes that may be observed such as town meetings, elections, court proceedings, tax collections, issuing of licenses, school board meetings, and other public functions; (3) governmental services such as the local post office, the RFD, county health service, road building and maintenance, police service, highway patrol, fire department, agricultural extension service, public hospitals, institutions for the indigent, aged, insane, blind, and deaf, weather bureau, water plant, and sewage disposal.[1]

Government can add immeasurably to the general welfare of the people. Through services as well as direct aid where needed it can and does increase the income of the people. All citizens should understand its operations, objectives, limitations, and deficiencies. To lead to such understandings is a legitimate function of the schools.

Aspects of Rural Life as Resources. Until only a few decades ago the basic wants of a large majority of our people, especially those living on the farms and in the villages and hamlets, were satisfied by means of production and in a social situation far less complex than today. Prior to the machine age rural life was characterized by hand work, personal responsibility and skill, and dependence upon animal power and by the small number and simplicity of its social organizations and institutions. Many life values, however, that developed under the less complex conditions of rural life in former days have made distinct contributions to the best sense of values that characterize us as a modern, progressive, democratic people who, ideally at least, act according to the Hebraic and Christian ethics of individual worth, dignity, and accountability and of social justice. Much of this rural heritage is well worthy of perpetuation through our education of the young; it is an invaluable resource for the realization of the better life in all America. Only an incomplete inventory of the values contributed by rural life can be made here.

The Rural People. The chief resource in rural America is the people themselves. Their ancestors were the ancestors of all America today and they will be the ancestors of all America tomorrow far beyond their proportionate numbers today. It has been estimated that three generations from now 75 per cent of the people in the United States will be the descendants of persons now living in our rural areas.[1]

---

[1] Clark, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

The characteristics of the rural population in the nation as a whole, in any state, region, or community is of great importance in the planning and administration of education. Matters such as age composition, birth rates, marital status, size of family, educational status, relative number of labor-force participants, racial and nativity classifications, physical and health status, and intelligence status should be known and interpreted. Here the rural sociologist has much to contribute. Alert teachers and school administrators will know what the sociologists have to say on these subjects.

Among the qualities, ideals, and accomplishments of rural life that should be considered as resources for use in the educational program, especially in programs serving children and youth living in a rural environment, are the following:

Adult Skills and Experiences. In nearly all rural communities there are people who understand the natural environment of the community and its numerous resources; who know the folklore of the region; who know the wildlife of the region; who are skilled in arts and crafts; and who know useful agricultural methods. These knowledges and skills are available for the instruction of children and youth wherever teachers have the vision and energy to discover and utilize them.

Strong Family Ties. Family unity has been a traditional characteristic of rural life. The school should strengthen the ideal.

Neighborhood Associations. Rural people are neighborly. Associations for pleasure and recreation, mutual helpfulness in times of trouble and distress, the community care of its own casualties, a strong sense of "belonging" are among the best traditions of rural America. Such attitudes and activities should be cultivated through the program of the school.

Productive Effort. One of the rewards of the rural way of life is a sense of importance in the economic activities of the community and a direct knowledge of what one has produced and how one contributes to the welfare of the family, community, region, and nation. Farm people more than any others can see the tangible results of their efforts. Here is the best laboratory for character education in a democratic society of free enterprise.

---

[1] Baker, O. E., and Taeuber, Conrad. "Some Trends in Rural Population of Significance to Education." *Rural Schools for Tomorrow* (Julian E. Butterworth, ed.). Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1945, Chap. V, p. 68.

Ownership of Property. The effect of the ownership of tangible things such as land, plants, animals, and houses, things that are the products of one's own labor and care, is another great contribution to our national character and well-being. The school should to the fullest extent utilize this attribute of rural living in its instructional program.

Work Experience. Rural life, especially farm life, offers opportunities to children and youth to obtain work experience which is now considered as an important part of the education of everybody. Such experiences, if properly directed, not only offer an opportunity to acquire skills and manual dexterity, but also help to build a sense of responsibility that is a valuable asset in whatever work the young people may later engage in.

Care of Animals. One of the most valuable learning experiences any person can have is the care, observation, and training of animals, especially farm animals. There is no doubt that one learns much about instinctive behavior by association with animals and in that way acquires a fundamental understanding of human nature and behavior. Such experiences constitute one of the great resources of rural living.

Aesthetic Appreciations. The opportunities for learning to enjoy the beauty in the natural world are unique in most rural communities. Much depends upon what people learn to see, to compare, to contrast, and to evaluate. Landscapes, streams, waterfalls, fields with growing crops, trees, shrubs, flowers, birds, animals, a sunset, autumn colors, Indian summer, houses and gardens aesthetically planned and harmonized with the landscape, and numerous other beauties to be enjoyed are available. They are resources for teaching if the persons in their presence use them. One cannot escape the observation that mutilated landscapes, denuded hillsides, eroded soils, bare, ugly dooryards, unpainted and unsightly houses, polluted streams, ugly roadsides, highway views obstructed by signs and commercial advertising, unplanned villages, unsightly, insanitary, and uncomfortable schoolhouses are all evidences of a poor aesthetic sense of appreciation on the part of the people in many communities.

Opportunities for Outdoor Life. Rural people have unlimited opportunities for a wholesome outdoor life. The fields, forests, and streams are available for leisure-time pursuits and enjoyment. To those who doubt or minimize the significance of this resource, a satisfactory answer could be found by observing the crowded parks and highways near cities when the weather is good.

Unique Recreational Opportunities. Although there has been an increase in commercialized forms of recreation, particularly of the spectator type, rural communities still have unique resources for the development of recreational activities that are better designed to contribute to wholesome living. Early rural forms of recreation were almost exclusively of an active nature and their hold upon the people still persists in many regions. A prime example is the widespread prevalence of square dancing and playing of folk games in rural areas, the influence of which is being presently felt even in urban areas. Nearness to streams, woods, and fields also offers opportunities for engaging in outdoor sports and other recreational activity associated with outdoor life.

Economic and Social Deficiencies as Related to Education. The instructional activities of the school should also take into account the lack of resources in the community and region and should undertake to aid in eliminating the deficiencies. Only a positive approach based upon the utilization of resources that are available can accomplish that objective. Some of the deficiencies to be overcome are low income, poor food supply, poor dietary habits; low standards of health; inadequate and unattractive housing; poorly selected, uncomfortable, unattractive, and unkempt clothing; lack of conveniences in the home; destructive or unproductive methods of agriculture; denuded forest; eroded land; polluted streams; destruction of the water supply; or any other deficiencies that lower the health, comfort, efficiency, income, or aesthetic and ethical standards of the people.

Unfortunately, in some rural communities there are attitudes, superstitions, rivalries, undemocratic caste systems, and practices that retard individual development and prevent cooperative community action for the accomplishment of worthy purposes. One way or another the schools by patient discovery and leadership and by constructive programs based on high ethical ideals should lead the people of the community largely through the youth to overcome such negative attributes and practices.

Examples of Resource-use Education. There are many examples of resource-use teaching in the literature. Many others can be observed by school visitation. The practice of this type of teaching usually is in connection with conservation, soils, forests, water, wildlife, and less frequently with the exhaustible resources such as iron, coal, oil, and other of the more important minerals. One observation about most of these teaching projects is especially important: although the scientists emphasize the fact that no resource can be dealt with in isolation, most of the projects fail to deal adequately with relationships among various parts of the environment.

Related Studies in Conservation. An example of an instructional program that emphasized relationships is one in the Barcroft School in Arlington County, Virginia, reported by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in their 1948 Yearbook. The report is quoted as follows:

The Conservation studies program includes four "aspects"—Pioneer Resource Use, The Soil as the Basis of Life, Conserving Our Forests, and We Need Animals. Because the school has established such a study of the various "aspects" of resources, it is able to give some idea of the interrelationships among them. The beginning study is an attempt to compare the practices and results of the pioneers with the present state and use of resources. One activity for example is to make a resource map of the United States as it was in the pioneer days, and then show how different it would be now.

As the study progresses through discussion and activities on soil, forest and animals, the interrelationships begin to come clear. Forests are studied not only in and of themselves, but for their effects on other resources. The major purpose is stated: "To appreciate the value of forests not only for beauty but also for utility in manufacturing, and for necessity in preserving soil and wildlife." And as the study moves on to "We Need Animals," the interrelationships are further stressed. One major objective comes to be: "To develop appreciation of the interrelationship of plants, climate, soil and water on animal life."[1]

Better Land Use. Another example illustrative of resource-use education is taken from a recent report on the Resource-use Education Project sponsored jointly by the Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems and the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. It is reported as follows:

The program described in this story is notable because students actually carried out resource-use practices in land and water conservation.

A school became interested in how the level of living in its community could be improved by better use of land and water.

A community survey revealed that few cover crops were planted, that the quality of pasture was poor, that the woodlands were of poor quality and were being cut without regard for the future, that most of the cultivated land was planted to row crops, and that a large percentage of the land had been abandoned because of soil erosion.

Consultations with local agriculturalists and field trips to selected farms showed the students good conservation practices.

The students undertook certain small projects in the community. They constructed diversion channels to divert water at the heads of gullies; they planted bi-color lespedeza on waste land to establish wildlife areas, and kudzu to hold the road banks.

In order to acquaint other groups in school and community with this problem of land use, the students made a movie of their activities and showed it to the school assembly and at several meetings in the community. A journalism class cooperated by writing news articles about the various activities undertaken. The group participated in a panel discussion in a radio broadcast. They arranged a public exhibit of some of the work done, which included posters, friezes, diagrams, booklets and maps. Several experiments with soil, water, and plants were included in the exhibit.

As a result of this study, the community showed better land use in several ways. Some of the worn out land was planted in kudzu and pine seedlings; many farmers began contour patterns of plowing; selective cutting was started in several woodlands;

---

[1] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *op. cit.*, p. 72.

a few check dams were built; lespedeza was planted in several places for better pastures; and many road banks were planted in kudzu.[1]

Formal Instruction and Resource Use. Among people who have not had experience with the kind of teaching indicated in the two examples cited, the question arises as to whether the fundamental tool subjects are adequately taught and if they are how it is accomplished. The answer is that the teachers know what formal skills need to be taught and, in the development of plans for projects, provide time needed for formal instruction, drill, and the like. Checks are made at regular intervals to find where special instruction is needed, and both individual and group instruction are provided.

In projects of the types described there is ample opportunity to teach history, geography, science, mathematics, English, writing, speaking, and many other skills.

The advantages of this kind of teaching are that the pupils have a motive for learning; learning is based on genuine interest and is related to constructive social purposes.

A Philosophy of Education Based on Resource Use. It is sound pedagogy to base all instruction on the experience and environment of the children and youth being instructed. The content of education, to an appreciable extent, should be indigenous to the experiences and needs of children, to the resources, or lack of them, and to the needs of the community served by the school. This philosophy does not limit the objectives and program of the school; it means that the psychological law of apperception is utilized in a practical way. The major objectives of education are in no way neglected; they are given firsthand and practical implementation.

Problems of resource use are ever with us, and their recognition has been far from satisfactory. The lack of knowledge of natural and human resources and the acceptance of deficient moral and ethical standards regarding their use have resulted in most unfortunate destruction. Education should come to grips with the practices that are gnawing away the means to the good life and the perpetuation of the race. The guiding principles and objectives to be observed in the needed educational programs include at least the following:

1. Education is essential to social progress in the wise use of resources. People usually do not do any better than their knowledge, skill, and ideals make possible. Since these human characteristics are learned and

---

[1] Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems, and Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. *Learning by Living*. Tallahassee, Fla.: State Department of Education (Orville Calhoun, Distributor of Publications for the Southern States Work Conference), 1950, pp. 19–20.

acquired, all progress worthy of the name depends in a fundamental way upon education, formal or informal.

2. Resource use in our country should of necessity be based upon the democratic ideal that the supreme values of our society are human values, that "all men are created equal" with respect to dignity and rights. Education, then, should lead to the acceptance and practice of the idea that resources should be developed, used, and conserved for the greatest good of the greatest number and not merely for the short-range benefit of the few or the self-appointed elect. It also follows that education should strive to awaken and develop the creative energies of every person to the fullest extent of his potentialities.

3. Educational methods and procedures to a large extent require group activities. Although learning is done by an individual it most often occurs in group situations. Effective citizenship requires ideals, attitudes, understandings, habits, and skills in cooperating and associating with others. It is in this respect that the school should make one of its most unique contributions to democratic living. Thus the social situation provided by the school is one of the primary resources of our society.

4. Sound programs of resource use require that education be a dynamic and integral part of community life. An effective program of preparation for future adult citizenship should begin with experiences for effective living in the present, the nature and quality of those experiences being determined by the needs and maturity of the pupils. Moreover, these experiences should deal with real-life problems in the community, and the young people should be given an active part in helping to solve them.

5. Education should provide direct learning experiences with the physical resources of the community. It is evident that if the people know enough and have the will to do so, physical resources can be used wisely and to some extent changed and increased. It is also evident that the resources that most intimately concern people are those of their own community and region. It necessarily follows that the program of the school should first be concerned with the understanding of the kind, quantity, and character of resources in the community and with the use of those resources for raising the level of living of the people concerned.

6. Programs of resource-use education should provide for the direct participation of all age groups in the community. Although the primary responsibility of the school is to offer instruction to young people of school age, it also has the obligation of offering opportunities for learning and cooperative effort to the adults of the community. The conventional secondary school program has not provided all the educational experiences needed in adult life for effective living. New facts, new discoveries and

inventions, and new demands of a social nature create the need of adults for additional educational opportunities to keep abreast of the times. Furthermore, the conservation of natural resources can hardly wait for the present generation now in school to take over as adults.

7. Since community structure and organization constitute a basic resource in the lives of the people, resource-use education should begin with the community as it is. If the community is not what is desirable, perhaps the educational program can help to make it become so.

A Program of Action. How does a program of resource-use education get started? Any teacher can begin it with her own pupils whether she teaches a single grade or a single subject or several grades as in a one-teacher school. Such a program, however, is more effectively undertaken if it is the program of a whole school or school system and is done in cooperation with other teachers under the sympathetic, intelligent leadership of a principal, supervisor, or superintendent or all three.

The beginning point is the selection of a problem that the pupils one way or another have come to recognize as important and that challenges their interest and awakens a desire to seek a solution. This accomplishment may or may not be brought about by the purpose and stimulation of the teacher. The problem should be of significance to the well-being of the community and region served by the school and its study and solution should result in better living. It should also be treated in its interrelationships with other problems.

An Inventory. A good way to begin is to make an inventory of the resources of the community classified as follows:

1. Natural resources: climate, land surface, water, minerals, soil, natural vegetation, and wildlife. The amount, condition, and patterns of occurrence of natural resources in the community, and perhaps in the state, region, or nation. Natural resources in turn should be classified as exhaustible and inexhaustible or renewable.

2. Human resources: the physical, intellectual, and social qualities of people. The major population facts and trends of the community; health, education, skills, occupations; customs, traditions, and values of the people.

3. Social resources: the major social institutions and agencies in the community, the major purposes they serve, and how they work.[1]

It is especially desirable in making an inventory of community resources to find out who knows what, and what public and private agencies with information and services may be available in the solution of problems and for instructional purposes.

---

[1] Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems, and Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 40–41.

Steps in Problem Solving. Once an inventory is made, steps should be taken to select the problem or problems to be used for instructional purposes and community action. The following steps suggested by the Southern States Work Conference and the Committee on Southern Regional Studies, previously referred to, will be found useful:[1]

(1) Arouse concern about community problems and opportunities.
(2) Identify and analyze problems and select problems to work on.
(3) Work out solutions. This third step is the most difficult. The following suggestions will be helpful:
  (*a*) Define and clarify the problem to be attacked; understand what the group is up against.
  (*b*) Make tentative suggestions for possible solutions of problems based on available information. Everybody should be encouraged to make suggestions.
  (*c*) Secure the necessary information to test solutions suggested; get the evidence; provide the proof; learn to recognize, evaluate and weigh such sources of information as the following in reaching a decision: experience, judgments of experts, reports of surveys and scientific research projects, textbooks, the current press, observation, one-sided presentation of data, vested-interest or propaganda, hearsay, opinions of lay persons.
  (*d*) Draw conclusions from the evidence secured; accept, reject, or modify suggested solutions in light of the evidence; arrive at functional solutions in terms of the evidence and the welfare of the group.
  (*e*) Do not decide upon final, "all-or-nothing" alternative. Adopt, instead, an experimental attitude and be prepared to modify procedures as experience reveals better ways.
  (*f*) Put the accepted solution into practice. Make plans for democratic group action in making the solution work.
(4) Evaluate procedures and results.

Organization and Materials. Other procedures that will accelerate the adoption and successful practice of resource-use education include the formation of teacher councils who go to work on their common problems; the building of a materials bureau; the assembling of visual-aids materials and the accumulation of a library of current books, pamphlets, bulletins, and periodicals; and the conducting of workshops at teacher-education institutions.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. As an experimental project, work out with your pupils, or a group of pupils under your supervision, a project concerning some problem that seems to be urgent or at least of great interest in the community. Make a list of the resources available and draw up a plan for utilizing them. Make a time schedule for needed formal instruction. Relate as many subject-matter groups as possible to the project. Keep a record of what happens. Test your students for accomplishments in the formal subject and compare their scores to norms. Write an evaluation of what was done in terms of outcomes. What evidence do you have that pupils learned as well or better under this

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 32–33.

method of instruction as under more formalized types? What social outcomes were observed? What is the evidence?

2. With a group of high school teachers and pupils, select some problem involving natural resources. Set up objectives. Plan areas of instruction for the various subject-matter teachers and decide upon areas of cooperation. Hold frequent councils for checking up, changing, and projecting plans. Evaluate the results.

3. Draw up a unit of study of natural resources that emphasizes wise use, balance in nature, and interrelationships of natural phenomena.

4. As an administrator draw up a plan of how you would get your teachers to undertake a program of resource-use education.

5. Make an inventory of the special skills and knowledge of individuals in your community and make a plan for utilizing these resources in the instructional program of your school.

6. Make a survey of dietary practices of the homes in your community. Enlist the aid of specialists in this field. Plan instructional activities to meet the needs that are found.

7. With the aid of specialists make a survey of the health status of the people of your community. Plan instructional activities to meet the needs that are found.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Large Was Our Bounty*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1948.

Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, American Council on Education. *Education for Use of Regional Resources*. Washington, D.C., 1944.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Community Resources in Rural Schools*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1939.

———. *Conservation Education in Rural Schools*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1943.

McCharen, W. K. *Improving the Quality of Living*. Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1947.

Morphet, Edgar L. (ed.). *Building a Better Southern Region through Education*. Tallahassee, Fla.: Southern States Work Conference on Administrative Problems, 1945. Part I, "The Challenge of the Southern Region for Education." Part II, "Building an Education to Meet the Challenge," pp. 1–160.

Osborn, Fairfield. *Our Plundered Planet*. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1948.

Smith, Donnal V., and Frederick, Robert W. *Live and Learn*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938.

Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems, and Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education. *Learning by Living*. Tallahassee, Fla.: State Department of Education (Orville Calhoun, Distributor of Publications for the Southern States Work Conference), 1950.

Tennessee Valley Authority, Department of Agricultural Relations. *Food at the Grass Roots*. Knoxville, Tenn.: Tennessee Valley Authority, 1947. Chap. V, "Soil Minerals: The Critical 5 Percent," pp. 25–34. Chap. VI, "Phosphorus: Bottleneck of the World's Hunger," pp. 35–48.

Vogt, William. *Road to Survival*. New York: William Sloane Associates, 1948.

Part Three

AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR RURAL AMERICA

CHAPTER 7

THE RURAL SCHOOL OF TOMORROW: PURPOSES AND PROGRAM

Rural life is changing. These changes are creating new problems of living, many of which should be the concern of the school. As a result, our conception as to what the rural school should be and do is also changing. The purpose of this chapter is to clarify our thinking regarding the purposes and the nature of the rural school and to enlarge our vision as to what its program should be.

Two Extreme Views. Are there significant differences between an effective educational program in the rural and in the urban areas? Two extreme views on this are sometimes held.

Some believe that rural education is no different from urban education. Such persons call attention to the fact that all children and young people, wherever they may live, must develop the fundamental skills in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the like, must have those attitudes and ideals and those knowledges that enable them to be competent citizens, and should have those general understandings and abilities that enable them to adapt themselves to the world in which they live. Such arguments are valid; yet, this point of view does not tell the entire story.

On the other hand, there are those who think of education for rural and for urban people as involving so many differences that these may be considered as two systems of education. Such persons call attention to significant differences in the environment of those who live in country and in city. They point out that in rural areas the vocational life, which revolves so much around the practice of agriculture, makes demands different from those in the city; that rural life has resources not found in the city and lacks that are often markedly different from many of the lacks that are created through urban life.

Let us examine further these two points of view by analyzing some of the responsibilities that a school serving rural people should assume.

Responsibilities Common to All American Schools. All schools, urban or rural, should see to it that the pupil develops, to the degree of proficiency that will enable him to meet the recurring problems of everyday living, such fundamental skills as reading understandingly, using the mother tongue according to acceptable standards, writing legibly, and using mathematics accurately.

All schools should likewise develop skill in the manual arts, not only for its practical value but for usefulness in coordinating brain, hand, and eye. The school should also teach those basic knowledges required for dealing wisely with problems of all types: health, vocation, recreation, economics, government, and the like. It should assist in the development of desirable attitudes of the individual toward his work, his fellow citizens in the community, and all those responsibilities he should assume as a member of his community. As a result of his total educational experience, to which the school contributes so much, the pupil should be able to appreciate the aesthetic elements in his environment while seeing those that ought to be improved, and should be able to enjoy good music, good art, and good literature.

From these skills, knowledges, attitudes, and appreciations should come, through all schools, increased *abilities* of various kinds: to be a good citizen of his community, state, and nation; to be a competent and self-supporting worker; and, above all, to be able to analyze situations, see problems and needs, and use disciplined thinking in finding solutions to those problems and needs.

Attention should be called to one common problem that should be the concern of all schools—the development of children and young people into good American citizens. Good citizenship implies, among other things, that all will be concerned about the welfare of all types of citizens in all types of communities, large or small. But schools have commonly failed to recognize the importance of developing those understandings and attitudes necessary to an appreciation of rural and urban people by each other. City and rural people have engaged in numerous conflicts, especially on economic questions. While differences in point of view will probably never be eliminated, there should be a sincere desire to understand the interdependency and interrelationship of city and country. For example, the city worker should be concerned that the farmer be sufficiently prosperous that he can purchase the products of industry—radios, refrigerators, rugs, furniture, farm machinery, etc. Food so cheap that the farmer's standard of living is kept down is not to the city worker's advantage. On the other hand, the farmer must have city workers who are sufficiently prosperous that they can purchase all the food they need.[1] As economic interdependency is recognized there will be other interdependencies that will merit attention, *e.g.*, health and sanitary conditions, social conditions, and the school system. While nonschool experiences contribute much to the development of these understandings, the school, whether urban or rural, has an opportunity and a responsibility through its social-studies program to give instruction on such matters.

---

[1] For more elaborate analyses, see the following: Bean, Louis H. "The Farmer's Stake in Greater Industrial Production." *Farmers in a Changing World.* Washington,

It is obvious that these and other elements common to all types of schools will require the training provided by the secondary as well as by the elementary grades. No one knows exactly how large these common needs are in the total school program, but they undoubtedly constitute a major part of the school's activities.

Special Needs with Which the Rural School Should Be Concerned. But there are problems created by the rural environment that cannot be neglected if the school is to perform its function fully and adequately.

Edwin R. Embree, president of the Julius Rosenwald Fund, has written:

> The function of education has always been to prepare young people for happy and successful living in the communities of which they are a part. We are constantly forgetting this sole and essential purpose. We easily fall into a worship of certain subjects and certain methods of teaching as if these were in themselves the ends of education. If education is to be of real service to farm life and to rural children, we must cease to be awed by traditional subjects and procedures and build our schools on the essential needs of the countryside and the country child. . . . We are at the beginning of what bids fair to be a rural renaissance. Country life is receiving attention and interest in the United States unequaled since colonial days. For the first time in 100 years we are recognizing the desirable qualities of the countryside.[1]

Among the special opportunities and obligations of the rural community school are the following:

1. *Utilizing the resources and lacks of the community in building the program.* Farm and village provide many experiences that may be used to improve the effectiveness of instruction in reading, composition, mathematics, science, social studies, and the like. The plant and animal life of the rural areas provide firsthand experiences useful in nature study and in biology. There is the physics of the farm tractor or the chemistry of milk; the social implications of the Grange or the home bureau; the community self-improvement possibilities of the community council or the chamber of commerce; the mathematics of land measurement or of farm accounts; composition on any phase of community life of interest

---

D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1940, pp. 342–365. Chew, Arthur P. "The City Man's Stake in the Land." *Ibid.*, pp. 366–382.

[1] Embree, Edwin R. "Education for Rural Life." *Farmers in a Changing World.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1940, pp. 1033–1035.

to the pupil—all may be used to make learning more vital to the rural pupil (see Chapter 6).

The health of people in the rural areas needs particular attention, and the standards of living should often be raised (see later sections of this chapter). Library and recreational facilities are frequently inadequate. A school-community program may do much on these problems (Chapter 17). Handicapped children are commonly given no special consideration (Chapter 15). Industrial education for those who go to the city or even for those who work in the local community seldom exists (Chapter 13). Education for business is not as well adapted to rural needs as it might be (Chapter 12). The programs in agriculture and home economics, even, are not without their shortcomings (Chapters 10 and 11).

2. *Improving the economic level of the rural community.* The school can do much not only in making future citizens aware of the economic problems faced by the typical rural community, but, by the more adequate preparation of boys and girls for their particular vocational responsibilities and by instruction in community aspects of economics (see later sections of this chapter), in enabling them to deal with such problems more understandingly.

3. *Developing a better understanding of the problem of being a good citizen in the rural community* (see later sections of this chapter).

These several suggestions of matters for special emphasis in the rural school program are not wholly different from similar problems in urban schools; rather they show the desirability of making modifications of the school program in terms of conditions that characterize the rural areas.

There is, however, one problem that is a recurrent one in rural areas: Where may rural children find their life opportunities and satisfactions? This is discussed in the following section.

4. *The development of desirable attitudes toward rural life.* Fortunately, the United States has never had a serious problem of occupational stratification, or determinism, such as has existed in some cultural patterns of the past and still exists to some degree in some countries. With us the individual has been free to choose his occupation. There has been no tradition that the farmer's son should follow in his father's footsteps. He has been free to choose that occupation that appeals to his interest, in which he sees a satisfactory opportunity, and for which he is adequately prepared.[1]

About forty years ago certain writers seized upon the fact that large numbers of young people were leaving the farm to seek vocational opportunities elsewhere. It was frequently assumed that those who left the country were the more able. "Something needs to be done," said such writers, "to protect our future rural life by keeping a fair share of the more able in the country to be the leaders of a high-type rural culture." While that end is greatly to be desired in the interests of a strong America, some suggestions that have grown out of this migration need careful scrutiny.

---

[1] Professor W. A. Anderson of Cornell University has recently made several studies on the values in rural living and has constructed a scale for measuring opinions about

As later sections of this chapter indicate, it must be recognized that migration from the farm is necessary because of changing conditions in agriculture. Baker and Taeuber showed, in 1945, that during the one hundred years from 1840 to 1940 the proportion of gainfully employed engaged in agriculture decreased from about 68.6 per cent to 17.8 per cent. This decrease, according to these writers, is due primarily to a fourfold increase in production per worker in agriculture during that period.

> The increase in production per farm worker is attributable in large part to increasing use of power, particularly the substitution of mechanical power for animal power, with resultant release of feed for the production of meat and milk. Other factors have been the use of fertilizers; the transfer from the farm to the factory of some processing operations, for example, the production of butter and cheese; the advances in control of plant and animal diseases; improvements in feeding farm animals; also advances in plant breeding, for example, hybrid corn; likewise in animal breeding with resultant increase in production of meat, milk, and eggs per unit of feed consumed. No less important has been the shift from the less productive toward the more productive crops per acre, for example, from timothy to alfalfa hay and from wheat and oats toward corn, fruits and vegetables; likewise the shifts from the less productive toward the more productive animals per unit of feed consumed, principally from beef cattle toward dairy cattle and chickens, and from sheep toward hogs.[1]

These authors express the opinion that there will probably be a further trend in the same direction and conclude that "the prospect, therefore, is for continued increase in production per worker for many years and reduction in the proportion of the gainfully employed engaged in agriculture at a rate not far different from that during the past century." Offsetting this increase in production, to some extent at least, may be an increasing population in the United States, an improved standard of living as regards food consumption, and possibly an increasing demand

---

rural living. See Anderson, W. A., *A Study of the Values in Rural Living,* Parts I–VI. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station. Part IV is a short form of the opinion scale.

[1] Baker, O. E., and Taeuber, Conrad. "Some Trends in Rural Population of Significance to Education." *Rural Schools for Tomorrow* (Julian E. Butterworth, ed.). Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1945, p. 66.

from certain foreign countries. Since the birth rate in the rural areas of the United States has long been higher than in the cities, it must be concluded that the net balance of migration within the foreseeable future will normally be from farm to village or city. If, during periods of lower industrial activity, this migration throws more into the cities than can be absorbed, a problem will be created. That problem is one with which the whole country, rural and urban, must deal.

In addition to such modifications in the program as are suggested in the foregoing paragraphs, there are problems peculiar to the organization and administration of small schools. There is need for larger local districts (Chapter 19) and for more effective intermediate units (Chapter 20). There are the problems of transportation (Chapter 22) and of financing (Chapters 24 and 25).

In a Dynamic Society New Needs Will Forever Be Arising. The school has sometimes been accused of being a conservative agency in society. Doubtless the criticism is justified in certain communities and at certain times in most communities. On the whole, however, our American school system has been forward-looking. During the last few decades, especially, it has tended to recognize new needs and has developed new activities and programs for meeting them. At the same time it has realized that not everything that is old should be discarded: high ideals never become out of date, and for that reason honesty, integrity, virtue, moral and physical courage, and the essential knowledge involved in all kinds of life problems will always be recognized as desirable outcomes of a good education.

As evidence of the school's willingness and ability to meet new needs may be mentioned the health program. When the first system of classifying school expenditures was developed in 1915, health was considered to be not a part of the fundamental instructional program but an "auxiliary agency." This point of view is disappearing; the school is now recognizing its responsibilities as outlined in a later section of this chapter.

During the last two or three decades we have gradually come to realize that the school has a responsibility for giving special help to exceptional children, whether these are above normal ability or whether they have deficiencies in sight, hearing, nutrition, intelligence, or cardiac condition. We are coming to recognize that guidance—both educational and vocational—is a need created by our increasingly complex society. We are saying that pupils not only need to know what is good to do but should possess reasonable proficiency in doing that. Hence, work experience is receiving increased attention.

New needs are beginning to emerge: teaching young people to drive a car with safety; helping the emotionally unstable; leading students to understand the need of international cooperation. The school must be alert to all such new ideas and should do what seems best under the circumstances.

Purposes of the Rural School. The foregoing analysis makes us aware of the danger pointed out by Embree in the quotation given above—that of thinking of education as the teaching of specified subjects rather than as the development of abilities to meet life problems (which, of course, require the knowledge contributed by most of the subjects in the school curriculum).

From time to time educational goals have been stated more or less definitely that represent the experience of the race and the interpretation of a people at a particular time in history as to what they wish their schools to do. These purposes or goals are naturally influenced by what appear to be the significant needs in life.

During the last forty years American educators have been particularly active in analyzing purposes, goals, and objectives, in setting these up into systematic classifications, and in using them in developing and appraising school programs. One of the more recent classifications is the one presented by the Educational Policies Commission.[1] There are four major purposes in this classification—self-realization, developing good human relations, economic efficiency, civic efficiency—each being illustrated by a number of subordinate objectives that tend to make clear the purpose of each major objective.

1. The objective of *self-realization* suggests the importance of developing the capacities of the individual so that he may realize as fully as possible on all his potentialities. It goes without saying that the abilities to speak clearly, to read understandingly, and to write effectively are of primary concern. It is important, too, that even a reasonably well-educated person be able to solve his problems of counting and calculating; that he be an accurate observer and appraiser of conditions about him; that he understand the basic facts regarding health and disease; that he know how to protect his own health and that of persons dependent upon him; and that to these ends he work to improve the health of the community. A sound educational program will develop the ability of a person to give responsible direction to his own life, and to create a desire for further learning so that he approaches each important problem of life with an open and inquiring mind. He will have the intellectual resources for the use of leisure and will take an interest in the provision of facilities for recreation. To these will be added the ability to see and to appreciate beauty whether in nature, in art, or in literature.

---

[1] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D.C., 1938.

Many of the needs suggested in the foregoing paragraph are common to all schools. Some, however, are more serious in the rural school because of the lack of facilities in the community, and for this reason, a special responsibility is placed upon the school and its leaders.

Take, as an illustration, health, which is so important if the individual is to realize to the fullest extent all his potentialities. Considerable information about the health situation is given in Chapter 15 and need not be repeated. The fact that, as Mott and Roemer indicate, the rural areas have fewer general physicians, fewer medical specialists, fewer dentists,[1] and less adequate hospital facilities places special responsibility upon the health program of the school.

What may the school do? It should, obviously, stress the importance of good health. It should provide an adequate health examination of each pupil, either on its own responsibility or in cooperation with community health organizations. It should follow up these examinations by giving the results to parents, with suggestions that competent medical care should be secured. It should make available the services of a nurse-teacher. It should provide, in cooperation with county or state health organizations, various types of clinics. Where necessary, it should itself provide certain types of medical and dental services, such as the cleaning of teeth, the filling of cavities, and the supervision of children with cardiac lesions. Naturally, every school may and should give instruction in health to the end of developing desirable ideals, knowledges, and habits.

While some rural schools do these things, especially those where consolidation or centralization has brought together enough pupils to make such instruction and services feasible, in general they do less than urban schools in dealing with this problem.

2. The second purpose is that of *developing good human relationships.* This requires that the educated person know how to get along with others, both in work and in play; that he learn how to enjoy those with whom he comes in contact; that to these ends he be courteous in his treatment of others regardless of their social status. The foregoing rests upon the development of a belief that respect for humanity is important; that this respect is not merely the holding of some more or less theoretical and stereotyped beliefs that humaneness is desirable, but that each person should put his ideal into practice in his relationships with other members of his family, his neighbors, those who belong to a lower social level, or those who live in a foreign country. The beginning of effective human relationships is in the home, where the importance of the family as a

---

[1] Mott, Frederick D., and Roemer, Milton I. *Rural Health and Medical Care.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948. See especially pp. 45, 55, 145, 158, 180, 189, and 193.

significant unit in society is demonstrated by its functioning in neighborhood and community.

While this purpose emphasizes problems common to all schools, yet the rural community has certain qualitative differences even here. The very nature of the small community makes for an intimacy of contact generally not found in the city. This has both advantages and disadvantages. On the one hand, the contacts are likely to be with fewer persons, most of whom have the same background. This suggests the importance of extending the pupil's social experiences through visits to nearby cities, through reading, the radio, and other means of communication. On the other hand, the very intimacy of the contacts in the rural community emphasizes the importance of the quality of these social relationships.

Every effort of the school and of other community agencies should be directed to magnifying the good qualities in others and to minimizing those small differences and peculiarities that can so easily be overemphasized when people meet frequently. Since the rural community has usually a few who have different standards of living or who have been unfortunate in one way or another, there is a rare opportunity to quicken the sympathies and to broaden the understandings of the growing child through home, school, and community. Thus it has been commonly said that a greater neighborliness in its finest sense may, and generally does, characterize the small community as compared with the city.

Desirable human relations depend in large part upon home life. This in turn is affected by the standards of living in the home. While these are, in many rural situations, below those that are to be desired, they have been improving. From 1920 to 1945, there was an improvement in all except one of six facilities.[1] In some cases, such as electricity and radio, the increase is marked; in others it is relatively slight. The number of telephones showed a decline of approximately 7 per cent.

That standards of living vary from state to state and from community to community within a particular state is generally known. Margaret Hagood, using data from the 1940 census, has established an index of the level of living in each county of the United States.[2] She has analyzed separately the standards of living in the rural-farm areas and in the rural-nonfarm areas and has given a composite index for the two areas combined.

---

[1] Schuler, Edgar A., and Swiger, Rachel R. *Trends in Farm Family Levels and Standards of Living.* Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1947 (mimeographed).

[2] Hagood, Margaret. *Rural Level of Living Indexes for Counties of the United States, 1940.* Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1943 (mimeographed).

The items included in the study of farm areas are the following:

1. Percentage of occupied dwelling units with fewer than 1.51 persons per room.
2. Percentage of dwelling units with radios.
3. Percentage of farms with gross income of more than $600.
4. Percentage of farms reporting autos of 1936 or later model.
5. The median grade of school completed by persons twenty-five years of age and over.

The factors used in studying the rural-nonfarm areas are the same except for items 3 and 4. For these, she substitutes the percentage of homes with running water and the percentage of homes with mechanical refrigerators. These factors are clearly of significance in getting a measure of a standard of living. They were selected in part because they were considered to represent other factors not included in the study; for example, homes with running water are likely to have a larger percentage of telephones, electricity, and other facilities.

The United States as a whole is given an index number of 100 for both the farm and the nonfarm home. The following indexes are illustrative:

	Farm	Nonfarm	Composite
A South Central state	64	73	66
A Southeastern coast state	69	78	72
A Southwestern state	75	98	87
A New England state	120	151	145
A Middle Atlantic state	121	138	132
A Middle Western state	121	112	118
A Rocky Mountain state	114	110	113
A West-coast state	119	131	127

The indexes indicate marked variations for counties within a particular state. One Southern state shows a low index of 44 and a high index of 115. A North Atlantic state shows a low index of 108 and a high of 171.

It should be understood that the index of 100 does not represent the ideal or even a desirable standard of living; rather, it represents the "standard of practice" prevailing at the time.

In summarizing, Hagood concludes:

> Counties of the Southeast and of the bordering parts of adjacent States are generally lower than the national average, as is the case of the counties in the Southwest with a high percentage of Indian population. The Northeastern states, the Corn Belt, California, Washington and parts of the High Plains are the areas that contain most of the counties with highest rural level of living indexes.[1]

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 8.

Such an index figure serves two purposes. First, it impresses upon everyone the differences in rural-farm and rural-nonfarm standards of living in various parts of the country. Second, it should indicate where special attention to raising the standards of living ought to be given and may well serve as a stimulus to those counties and states with a low index.

Later, using the 1945 Census of Agriculture data, Hagood recomputed the index for each county for that year.[1] These data show an increase in level of living for farm operators about one-fourth above that of 1940. However, about 1 per cent of the counties showed a decline in the level of living. The largest percentage gain in the index was in the Southern regions; yet the index for it was still only 66. Since there had been an increase in the average net income of farm operators from $768 in 1940 to $2,251 in 1945, it is evident that, despite the increased cost of living during that period, the higher income was accompanied by a higher level of living.

As the income of those in the rural areas rises, many of these elements in the standard of living will be improved. As rural electrification proceeds we may expect a better situation as regards mechanical refrigeration, electric stoves, vacuum cleaners, and similar work-saving devices.

Even a considerably better income may not lead to as rapid improvement as would be desirable unless the ideal of better standards of living is established and some of the ways and means of securing improvement are understood. School instruction in home economics and in health will naturally have considerable influence. The equipment used in the home-economics suite will have its effect, as will also adult-education classes for homemakers.

This whole problem constitutes a functional project with which the rural school may well deal. While it illustrates the objective of developing good human relations, other purposes of the school are obviously involved. As a matter of fact this is true of most courses taught and of most problems or projects that are dealt with.

3. The third purpose is that of developing *economic efficiency*. Involved in this is a realization that many of the real satisfactions of life lie in one's field of work and in appreciation of good workmanship. It implies that the citizen understand the requirements and opportunities of various types of jobs, that he learn how to choose that type of vocation best suited to him, that he be effectively trained for participation in that vocation, and that he recognize the importance of continued improvement in occupational efficiency. As a means of becoming more efficient

---

[1] Hagood, Margaret. *Farm Operator Family Level of Living Indexes for Counties in the United States, 1940 and 1945.* Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Agricultural Economics 1947 (mimeographed).

economically, it is useful for him to learn how to buy with good judgment the materials he consumes, develop standards for guiding him in his expenditures, learn how to plan a sound program of economics for his own life, and so become an efficient and independent member of society.

One problem dealing with this objective may be analyzed briefly.

Murray D. Lincoln, president of the Cooperative League of the United States, speaking at the White House Conference on Rural Education in 1944, called attention, in a most challenging statement, to the American farmers' economic status. Among his statements are these:[1]

> We know that roughly 25% of the nation's population are farmers.
>
> We know that, with 10% of the national income, these farmers produce, rear and educate 31% of the nation's children.
>
> We know that throughout the past 25 years, excepting the current war boom, our farmers have been economically insecure.
>
> We know that, in many areas of the nation, farmers and their families exist on submarginal incomes.
>
> We witness the steady rise of farm tenancy until today we find less than half of our farmers owning their land.
>
> We regard the land as a national trust and yet watch its constant depletion by those too impoverished to maintain its fertility.

What new factors may enter the situation during the next decade or so it is difficult to say. Chapter 3 has undertaken to evaluate these and to make some predictions as to what the trend in farm income may be. Even though the improved economic situation of the years following the Second World War continues to some degree, there is obvious need to exert every effort to place farming upon a more stable economic basis.

What may the educational program contribute? Much may be done through instruction in agriculture in high schools. While, undoubtedly, there are many successful farmers who have had little or no occupational training in school, there seems little reason to doubt that the one who has the theoretical and practical training offered by a competent high school department of agriculture will, on the average, make larger profits than the one without such preparation. Through the school he may learn how to set up an economical farming unit; how to determine the types of production best suited to his land; what are the best methods of production, including the use of laborsaving machinery; how to vary his crops from year to year in the light of estimated national and world supply and demand; and how to market his products most profitably. While the individual farmer may not be able to do much about the price level of farm products, he may, through cooperation with other farmers, be able to so grade his product that he will secure the best prices and sell to better advantage. He will understand the importance of conservation and know how to achieve this through proper drainage, contour plowing, the use of natural and commercial fertilizers, crop rotation, and the like. The competent teacher of agriculture will develop in him an attitude that may be more significant than any other single factor—an inquiring mind. The well-trained student will begin to diagnose his difficulties and to determine probable causes. He will know that he may often find the solution through his county agent or the research bulletins published by his state college of agriculture or by the United States Department of Agriculture. If the problem is unusually complex, he should know how to call upon his state experiment station for assistance.

---

[1] Lincoln, Murray D. "Building the Future of Rural America." *The White House Conference on Rural Education.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944, p. 45.

As agriculture is made more profitable, business and professional men located in the rural villages will likewise profit. The whole community will feel the effect.

Other parts of the school program may also deal with problems that affect, directly or indirectly, the economic status of the rural areas. In the social-studies offerings it would seem to be defensible and desirable to teach all secondary school pupils the values in various types of cooperation and the problems that must be solved. Frank Cyr found, as the result of a survey of 133 schools in 37 states, that three-fourths of the schools in small communities now teach about cooperatives and that 97 per cent of the teachers say that schools generally should teach about them.[1] As the home-economics departments in high school teach girls how to plan the home budget and how to purchase and use food and other materials wisely, the economic status will be improved.

The school may go even beyond what has been suggested above and raise the question: What can be done to improve the economic status of the community beyond the contributions of the vocational curriculums? Teaching problems may well deal with such economic factors as the source of the community's income; its amount; its business, industrial, and agricultural activities; the extent of its trade area; what may be done to extend the trade area, and the like.[2] On such a vital project the school and the community might well decide to pool their resources, looking to an action program. This results in one type of school-community program (see Chapter 17.)

---

[1] Cyr, Frank W., and Tipton, James H. *What High Schools Are Teaching about Cooperatives*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945. Of course, such teaching should not be for the purpose of indoctrinating pupils regarding cooperatives; rather, of developing an understanding of the opportunities and the limitations in this type of business organization.

[2] See a useful analysis of opportunities along this line in *Small Town Manual for Community Action*. Industrial Series, No. 4. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1942, pp. 27–44.

4. Finally, there is the objective of *civic responsibility*. The educated person understands the obligations of citizenship that devolve upon each and every person. He participates with increasingly good judgment in meeting the many problems of government that arise; he respects the law; he has a genuine belief in democracy and practices it; he understands what is required to make a good community or a good state or a good nation and is willing to devote effort to correcting any unsatisfactory conditions that may exist; he is primarily a citizen of his country but recognizes that there must be cooperation among all nations if any one nation is to live in justice. Basic to the development of all these abilities is an attitude of tolerance toward those who hold views different from himself or who are in a different economic or social stratum or who have different cultural backgrounds.

This objective also is a major responsibility of every school, but there are some special conditions in the rural community that demand attention. Developing good citizenship involves four major steps:

(*a*) Knowledge as to what a good community should be. Homes should be attractive and convenient and provided with most of the modern laborsaving devices. The members of the community should have available, either through private enterprise or community action where necessary, facilities for various kinds of recreation, a library, a health program, and welfare services for the less fortunate. The community should be economically prosperous, with an opportunity for every worker to find profitable employment and for each worker to secure a preservice or an in-service preparation for his job. An opportunity to prepare himself for a better position should certainly not be overlooked. There should be information as to the organizations that exist in the community—Chamber of Commerce, service club such as Rotary, Home Bureau, Farm Bureau, etc.—and what each may contribute. Throughout the community there should develop a common interest in making the community a desirable place in which to live. The whole community should be permeated by a spirit of democracy—a desire to bring every citizen into cooperation in whatever is done. The feeling of superiority that the village resident sometimes had for the "rural" resident is tending to disappear, but if any such feeling remains effort should be made to eradicate it.

(*b*) Knowledge that enables the citizen to appraise the strength and the weaknesses of his community. What is the average income of families? How does this compare with similar communities? Are the old people, of which the village has more than its share, able to maintain reasonable standards of living? If adequate facilities for the protection of health are not available, why is this so? Is the unit of local government, whether incorporated village, township, or similar area, too small to render the services needed? Does state law hamper unduly the authority of this local unit to do what it ought? In either of the two latter situations, what ought to be done? All these are merely illustrations of the importance of having high standards as to what a modern American community should be.

(*c*) Knowledge as to how existing weaknesses in the community may be overcome and a desire on the part of each citizen to exert himself in getting better standards into effect. If the health situation is unsatisfactory, is the school teaching health standards and practices effectively? Does something need to be done to attract a competent dentist or general medical doctor to settle in the community? Should this community work with others to establish a county hospital with whatever special services and personnel—a surgeon, a cardiologist, etc.—can be justified?

(*d*) Practice in dealing with citizenship problems. The school has commonly fallen short of its opportunities by failing to give enough experience so that the pupil knows how to use whatever knowledge he possesses. In agricultural education this experience is provided in part through projects carried out by the boy on his home farm. In getting practice in citizenship of a high order the problem is not so easy; yet it can be done within limits. Most village officials are glad to let school children of appropriate age visit their offices and to explain their work. Most businessmen are willing to let them see how a business is managed. Groups of pupils may visit other communities to see opportunities not provided in their own: a public library; a fire station; a farmer's market; or a cooperative creamery. Such experiences, while vicarious, give the pupil a more realistic understanding of a community and its problem of citizenship than does reading about them. A community council, among other duties, could if necessary stress the need for citizenship experience on the part of young people and so open up new opportunities in experience for them.

The Effect of Out-migration on the Rural-school Program. The rural school has another educational responsibility that should not be ignored—the appropriate preparation of those rural young people who move to the city. Such persons go because they see attractions in city life not found on the farm or in the village or because they see an opportunity for employment at what appears to be higher wages with shorter and more uniform hours of work. To neglect the educational needs of this group is likely to result in placing these migrants at a disadvantage.

How large is this group? Chapter 2 shows that in the 1920 decade there had been a net migration from farms of over 6 million; in the 1930 decade, over 3 million; and in the years 1940 to 1944, over 5 million, of which about half had returned by 1947.

Rural people cannot shrug their shoulders and say that the education of such persons is no responsibility of theirs. These young people are entitled to the best preparation for life that can be provided. The rural school must meet the problem.

What Over-all Program Should Be Provided in Rural America. It should include the following:

A. An *elementary school* that offers not only grades 1 through 6 but a kindergarten as well. Among the outcomes to be expected are the following:

1. The development of the basic skills and habits in reading and in oral and written English.
2. The development of such understanding of and skill in the use of elementary number concepts that they may be applied to the problems of home and community.
3. The development of skills in the manual arts.
4. An understanding of the simpler facts and principles of science and the ability to apply them in daily life.
5. An understanding of the basic elements in our American culture and an introduction to the appreciation of other cultures.
6. An appreciation of the importance of a sound family life with a growing understanding as to what each child may contribute to it in his daily life.
7. An understanding of the essentials of mental and physical health and the development of appropriate health habits.
8. A growing ability to work happily with others in all types of life situations; the inculcation of ideals of cooperation and habits of courtesy, good manners, consideration of others, and the like that are the basis of cooperation.
9. A growing understanding of the elements in good citizenship with an application to citizenship problems in the school, the home, and the community.
10. An appreciation of the aesthetic through music, art, literature, the handicrafts, etc., with a start toward the development of creative abilities in these fields.
11. The gradual development of the ability to think logically and critically.

The alert school will not hesitate to break away from traditional subject matter and methods of instruction so far as may be necessary; it will use projects, work, and other out-of-school experience as means of vitalizing the program (see Chapter 8).

B. A *secondary school* that will include grades 7 to 12 (and in some cases grades 13 and 14). The types of programs in this school and their major outcomes may be summarized as follows:

1. A general program in which further development in the skills, habits, knowledges, and ideals outlined for the elementary school is stressed to the end of developing the various abilities required for dealing wisely with the problems of daily living. Various types of curriculum organization, as discussed in Chapter 9, may be utilized. Aside from the general abilities just stated, the program may stress such special problems as driver education, conservation of natural resources, international understanding, family and community living, and self-government through the student council and other pupil organizations.

2. Vocational education for those who cannot go beyond the high school in their formal education or who drop out before completing the twelfth grade. This should be provided to a sufficient degree that they may be self-supporting.
   a. A curriculum should be provided in each of these vocational fields as pupil objectives and the economic ability of the community justify:
      (1) Agriculture: to prepare for farming of the type found in the area, including production, management, marketing, buying, and the use and upkeep of farm equipment. Usually through the intermediate district or the county unit may be provided preparation for occupations in the agricultural service industries (if these are important in the area), such as feed and farm machinery salesmanship, dairy management, greenhouse and nursery management, and food processing and preservation (see Chapter 10).
      (2) Business: to develop economic literacy on the part of everyone as regards savings, investments, insurance, and the like; to ascertain the vocational demands of the area in business; to prepare clerks, typists, bookkeepers, and stenographers as needed; to teach the farmer how to deal wisely with the business problems growing out of the management of the farm; to offer adults opportunity in special business problems as may be requested (see Chapter 12).
      (3) Homemaking: to prepare for making and managing a superior home including sewing, cooking, child care, nutrition, home decoration, and the like. If there is need, preparation should be available, usually through the intermediate district or the county unit, for preparation for wage earning as seamstress, housekeeper, practical nurse, and the like (see Chapter 11).
      (4) Industry: to prepare for a variety of semiskilled and skilled occupations in construction, manufacturing, and transportation as needed in the area and in such local service industries as telephone, refrigeration, and radio repair. For these as well as for those who seek specialized jobs, the county unit or the intermediate district should offer (or make available through contracting with a nearby city) such courses as appear to be practicable (see Chapter 13).
   b. All such vocational programs should do the following:
      (1) Be so realistic in their nature that the boy or girl will be able to enter an occupation with only a little apprenticeship experience.
      (2) At the same time, develop a desire on the part of the pupil to seek a more responsible position in his occupation and give him sufficient control of the knowledge basic to that occupation that he will be encouraged to continue his vocational preparation after leaving school.
3. A college-entrance curriculum planned for those who wish to enter schools of higher learning for an extension of their general education or for preparation in law, medicine, engineering, teaching, business administration, and the other vocations recognized as on the professional level.

C. *Specialized services.* The more important of these are as follows:

1. *Guidance.* While this is an important phase of the work of every teacher, it is coming to be recognized that specialists are needed for certain problems. The program should include occupational information about a large variety of fields of work; vocational guidance (assisting young people to assess their abilities in the light of the requirements for various occupations and professions); educational guidance (helping individual pupils to secure the prepara-

tion needed so far as this is possible through the local or intermediate and county districts); personal guidance (developing emotional stability, dealing with boy-girl relationships, finding satisfactory offerings for those who become disinterested in school, etc.) (see Chapter 15).

2. *Health services.* In addition to instruction in health, there should be included adequate playground facilities appropriate to the age of the child; effective periodic examinations; a follow-up system for health difficulties with the school providing a nurse-teacher; protection of teeth through cleaning and protective treatment; an X-ray examination of the chest; immunization (if necessary) against contagious diseases; a hot-lunch program; and education for safety (see Chapter 15).
3. The *education of handicapped children.* That there are handicapped children—cardiacs, low-visioned, hard-of-hearing, crippled, speech defectives, etc.—is generally known. It is estimated that from 10 to 12 per cent of children in school have need for some type of specialized service. Most programs of this type will be offered in the rural areas through the intermediate or the county district (see Chapter 15).

D. A *school-community program* in which school and community work together for the improvement of both. Among the services that may be so provided are the following:

1. Adult education for those who wish to extend their preparation in a vocational field, desire to improve their general informational or cultural background, or wish to develop hobbies.
2. Library services. If no library is available in the community, the school may appropriately develop a service for adults as well as for school children.
3. Recreational services may be provided through the auditorium or gymnasium or through the school grounds.
4. Summer activities are commonly useful in a rural community. Included may be a play and athletic program; hobby classes in music, art, drama, or industrial arts; moving pictures, if there is no commercial theater in the community; the use of the library; etc.

This school-community program should be based upon community needs (see Chapter 17).

E. In some situations, *grades 13 and 14.* Such a program when provided in the rural areas may be attached to one or more local schools, or it may be provided through "area schools." These schools are set up usually in county or intermediate units because only such areas may provide the necessary enrollment and provide the required financial resources.

Means for Making the Desired Program Effective. The foregoing program would seem modest to a progressive city of moderate size. To many rural people it may seem to be an impossibly extensive program, and under the administrative conditions prevailing in many states, that conclusion is probably justified.

Two policies and practices that have much to do with the achievement of this program are larger local districts and intermediate or county districts. The former is discussed in Chapter 19; the latter, in Chapter 20.

Progress toward this program will commonly be gradual and, sometimes, slow. The ideal should, however, be kept clearly in mind.

What, Then, Is a Rural School? For many decades the rural school was, by the average person, thought of as a small school of one or two teachers located, usually, in the open country. Such a conception was not unnatural. It was a type of school that existed in large numbers—in 1918 there were over 215,000 of them. It provided the basic education for a large proportion of the farm boys and girls. Until the need for giving young people from the farm an education beyond the elementary grades began to be recognized, it was the only type of school available to many.

Even yet, to some persons a rural school is the one-teacher or other small school, but there has been developing during the last forty years a realization that another conception is needed if the school is to make a significant contribution to the solution of the social and economic problems presented in preceding chapters.

The rural school is coming to be considered as the school provided in the rural community which includes the town or village and its surrounding open-country territory. The school that serves this rural community should offer all the needed educational services that can be provided. It may do this by bringing all children in the community into one school or it may, where necessary, continue some of the one-teacher schools in isolated areas. Because there are still thousands of one-teacher schools in the United States, the problems of such a school must still be given attention. However, as the small districts that now maintain a school are absorbed into consolidated or central or other types of community district, these problems will demand less and less attention.

A Rural School Defined. We now have a basis for defining, at least in general terms, what should be considered as a rural school.

1. It is a school that serves an area of relatively sparse population. The United States census has set 2,500 population as the dividing line between the rural and the urban areas, but conditions in different states may make the use of a different basis of definition desirable for educational purposes. For example, in New York a rural school is any school under the jurisdiction of a district superintendent, whose territory includes all farm areas and all organized communities with a population of less than 4,500.

2. It is a school that serves the whole rural community, including a hamlet or a village and its surrounding open-country territory.

3. It is a school that includes both elementary and secondary grades (with a probable extension to include grades 13 and 14 in some communities) as needed to provide an adequate educational program. It may, therefore, include one-teacher or other small elementary schools, schools in villages lying within the rural areas, and consolidated or central schools whether located in village or open country.

4. While, dominantly, the rural school in the United States is one located in an agricultural area, it does not exclude the school serving other occupational groups in sparsely settled regions. Not infrequently there are villages within the accepted population limit that are devoted largely to fishing, to mining, or to lumbering. These are rural as here defined because their educational problems are, in general, similar to the problems of other relatively sparsely populated areas.

Rural education broader than the offerings of the rural school. Every observing person realizes that the school does not do all the educating. Children are influenced for good or otherwise by all sorts of environmental factors: the home, the theater, the church, the scouting organizations, the public parks, the business and industrial concerns, and the like. Adults and out-of-school youth have the influence not only of many of the agencies just mentioned but others designed especially to meet their educational and other needs. Among these are the Grange, the home bureau, the fraternal organizations such as the Masons and the Odd Fellows, the luncheon clubs such as Rotary and Kiwanis, the chamber of commerce, and the like. The state college of agriculture through its extension service and its experiment station has been a powerful educational force in the rural areas and is likely to become even more influential in the future. The radio and the press influence both young and old. It is thus evident that the school is only one educational force in the program of rural education (see Chapter 14). But it is the one that bears the major responsibility.

The rural school is an integral part of the American school system. As the population of this country grew, many hamlets developed into villages and many villages developed into cities. These larger centers commonly sought a status independent of the surrounding rural territory by means of incorporation. In this manner the schools of the large village and of the city became independent of the town, township, or county within which they were located. Thus a coordinate system of rural and urban schools came into existence.

In most of our states this pattern of coordinate urban and rural schools now prevails. Exceptions to this general pattern are to be found in some of the New England towns and in those townships and county-unit states where all schools, rural and urban, are placed under the jurisdiction of one board of education. Regardless of organization, wherever rural children attend an urban school every reasonable effort should be made to satisfy their special educational needs.

Regardless of whether the coordinate or the completely integrated type of organization is adopted in a particular state, it should always be recognized that urban and rural schools together constitute one American school system.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In your state what is the legal definition of a rural school? If there is no legal definition, is there one by general understanding? If so, what is it? If you believe that a different conception is desirable, how would you state it?

2. What are some of the offerings made by your school or some of the services provided by it that deal with problems more or less peculiar to your rural community? What, in your judgment, are some community needs that should have the attention of the school?

3. Select one of the needs mentioned in Problem 2 and draw up a plan of action that will include: an analysis of the nature and extent of the need; any course or topics in a course where this might be discussed; any special services relating to it that the school might offer.

4. Compare the program of your school with that outlined on pages 132 to 134 of this chapter. What is now done well? What might be improved? What is not even attempted? In order to make a better program available through the school, what difficulties must be overcome?

5. Take some objective of education that seems to you to be particularly important (*e.g.*, tolerance, an inquiring mind, vocational efficiency) and indicate the conditions outside the school that affect this. Could these conditions be made to produce better results? How might this be done? What does the school now do that aids in getting better results? What might it do?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Butterworth, Julian E. "Goals for Rural Living in America." *Rural Schools for Tomorrow*. Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1945, Chap. 2.

———, Chairman. "A National Policy for Rural Education." *National Policies Affecting Rural Life*. Proceedings of Sixteenth American Country Life Conference. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933, pp. 52–62.

Cyr, Frank W., Chairman. *A Policy of Rural Education in the United States*. Report of the Committee on Program and Policy, Department of Rural Education. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1940.

Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District*. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, Chap. II.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *The White House Conference on Rural Education*. Washington, D.C., 1944.

Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. *Education for All American Children*. Washington, D.C., 1948.

———. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D.C., 1944.

Ogden, Jean and Jesse. *Small Communities in Action*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

Ragsdale, C. E., Chairman. *Education for Rural Wisconsin's Tomorrow*. Madison, Wis.: Committee on Rural Community High Schools, 1946.

University of the State of New York. *Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas*. Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1946, Chaps. 2 and 3.

CHAPTER 8

EDUCATION FOR RURAL CHILDREN

A large part of the work of elementary education in the United States is still concerned with children living in rural areas, a majority of whom live in the open country on farms. The education of these rural children presents some environmental conditions, needs, and problems that are unique and distinct as contrasted with the education of children in urban areas. It is with these distinguishing conditions and problems that this chapter is concerned, rather than with the entire field of the organization and administration of elementary education, which has been amply presented in many good books on the subject.

Some Basic Facts. In 1947 slightly more than half the children of elementary school ages enrolled in school were living in rural areas. Somewhat less than half these *rural* children were living in rural-nonfarm areas and a little more than half on farms (Table 23). Thus as late as 1947 at least half the job of elementary education in the United States was a job of rural education. Although less than half the rural children are nonfarm, it is certainly true that nearly all of them, including those living in villages, were living in an environment that is largely affected by agriculture and that retains many of the attributes of the rural way of life. At least they live in small communities and by and large are in relatively small schools. Their chief environmental influences are not far removed from the farm as the chief economic enterprise, and their social life is in relatively small groups.

According to the present population trends the children from rural areas are expected to continue to be about half the total elementary school enrollment. An important fact, however, is that of the 49.2 per cent of the national elementary school enrollment that will probably be in schools in rural areas in 1960, perhaps 30.6 per cent will be attending school in rural-nonfarm communities and only 18.6 per cent in farm areas.[1]

It is, of course, difficult to predict where children will be attending school in 1960. School district reorganization is taking place at a rapid rate. Many rural-farm children will be attending schools located in rural-nonfarm communities and some rural-nonfarm children will attend schools in urban centers. The important fact is that a large proportion of children will live in small communities and on the farm, and that the total number of elementary school children coming from a rural environment is not likely to become less than it was in 1947. In fact it is of great significance that the increase in the number of elementary school children in small rural-nonfarm communities is likely to be about twice as great as in the larger urban communities.

---

[1] Estimated from Table 23.

Furthermore, schools in urban areas that have pupils from rural areas have problems in rural education and are under professional as well as ethical obligation to make whatever curriculum adjustments are necessary or desirable to meet the needs of their rural pupils.

It is estimated that in 1947–1948 there were approximately 115,000 rural elementary schools. Since about 75,000 of those schools had only one teacher, there were about 40,000 that had two or more teachers. It is probable that within a decade or more the number of one-teacher schools may be reduced to 25,000 and the number of other rural-elementary schools to as few as 30,000.[1]

TABLE 23. CHILDREN OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL AGE ENROLLED IN SCHOOL IN 1940 AND 1947, PREDICTED ENROLLMENT IN 1960, AND PER CENTS OF INCREASE, UNITED STATES, URBAN, RURAL, RURAL-NONFARM AND RURAL-FARM[a]

Population area	Number 5–13 years old enrolled in school (thousands)			Per cent of increase	
	April, 1940	October, 1947	Predicted, 1960	1940–1947	1947–1960
United States	16,840	18,370	26,160	9.1	42.4
Urban	8,597	9,158	13,277	6.5	44.9
Total rural	8,243	9,212	12,883	11.8	39.8
Rural-nonfarm	3,668	4,446	8,011	21.2	80.2
Rural-farm	4,575	4,766	4,872	4.2	2.2

[a] Derived from Tables 4 and 6, Chap. 1.

A great majority of rural elementary schools have always been small institutions and, even with extensive consolidations and the abandonment of many one-teacher schools, will continue to be relatively small. Exact statistics are not available, but a conservative estimate places the average size of all rural elementary schools in 1949–1950 at a little less than three teachers. The average size of all rural elementary schools having more than one teacher was between five and six teachers. The important fact is that most of the job of elementary education in rural America is, and to a large extent will continue to be, a job of teaching in relatively small schools.

---

[1] Estimates based on trends and the probable school district reorganization, judging from experience, that may take place by 1960.

The number of children of elementary school ages not in school has long been too large to be looked upon with equanimity. In 1940 the United States census reported nearly 2,000,000 children aged six to fifteen not in any school. The Census Bureau reports of April, 1947, indicate that the number in the same age group may have been even larger than in 1940. The number five to thirteen years old not in school was 3,764,000. At least 1,500,000 of those children were six years old and 480,000 were seven to thirteen years old (see Table 24). More than half those children were in the South, where about half the rural-farm children of the nation are found. It is quite certain that nearly all the children not in school are among the disadvantaged classes in agriculture (Chapter 16).

TABLE 24. NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL AGE NOT IN SCHOOL, UNITED STATES BY REGIONS, APRIL, 1947[a]
(In thousands)

Area	5 and 6 years old	7–13 years old	Total
United States	3,284	480	3,764
Northeastern states	689	62	751
North Central states	986	73	1,059
Southern states	1,172	315	1,487
Western states	437	30	467

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Population Characteristics.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 12. Washington, D.C., Feb. 16, 1948, p. 10.

One of the great deficiencies in rural elementary schools is the absence of kindergarten facilities. In 1939–1940 less than 1 per cent of the rural elementary school enrollment was in kindergarten as compared to 5.6 per cent in urban schools. It is probably desirable that the kindergarten enrollment should be from 10 to 12 per cent of the enrollment in the first eight grades. Rural parents in many instances in all parts of the country have insisted on sending their five-year-old children to school, even in the absence of suitable physical facilities or a teacher trained in kindergarten instruction. Many of the rural teachers of first-grade children and in one-teacher schools are faced with this problem. There are many instances to indicate that the rural parents do send their children to kindergarten when the facilities are provided.

Some Desirable Standards. Before discussing somewhat in detail some of the desirable characteristics of the elementary instructional program in schools accommodating rural children, it is appropriate to consider briefly a few desirable standards.

1. The elementary school should include the kindergarten through grade 6. The abandonment of the traditional eight grades in the elementary school has taken place at an accelerated rate, because it is recognized that for most children the period of childhood ends and that of adolescence begins at about the end of the seventh year of school life, counting the kindergarten as the first. Furthermore, it is now generally considered a waste of time to spend eight years on the traditional elementary school curriculum. The fundamental elementary subjects can be learned sufficiently well by the end of the sixth grade. The seventh and eighth years of the traditional elementary school can be better utilized by offering opportunity for exploration in various fields of knowledge; by providing activity for discovering aptitudes and interests; and by placing together pupils of similar ages, interests, and development.

2. It is desirable to have an elementary school with at least one teacher for each grade and one extra teacher to take care of special classes or to care for adjustments that usually arise because of uneven grade enrollments. Thus for a school having the kindergarten through grade 6, there should be at least eight teachers. Since it is now generally considered that 25 pupils per teacher is a desirable pupil-teacher ratio, such a school would have about 200 pupils. Just how large an elementary school may be before any additional advantages cease to accrue because of size is not known, but it is doubtful that any advantages are gained after an enrollment of 300 pupils with 12 teachers is reached.

3. It is desirable that every clearly identifiable sociological neighborhood have an elementary school. This standard will frequently make it impossible to attain the minimum size of school indicated above.

4. Every elementary school should be an attendance unit in an adequate local administrative unit (see Chapter 19).

5. Every satisfactory elementary school will enlist and have the active participation of the maximum possible number of adult citizens of the area it serves. In the areas served by consolidated schools it is especially necessary that steps be taken and administrative arrangements be made to see that the school patrons who do not live near the school have an ample opportunity to visit the school and to participate in its activities.

6. The elementary school should and can be a center of adult education. Parent education and cooperative study and activity programs centered around community or neighborhood improvement are especially appropriate.

7. The school plant, whether the school is large or small, should be designed both to accommodate a modern instructional program and to serve as a neighborhood center (see Chapter 23 for specific facilities needed).

Purposes of the Elementary School. In addition to the general objectives and purposes of rural education set forth in Chapter 7, the following statement of the fundamental purposes of the elementary school in our society will be found useful.[1]

> 1. The elementary school must serve the child in his growth toward citizenship in a free society. He must have not only academic literacy, but social, civic and economic literacy as well.
> 2. The elementary school must serve the community. Life should be better for all people of all ages because there is a school in the community.
> 3. The elementary school must serve the nation. Our American way of life cannot be preserved unless the school is a constructive force for nurturing the dignity of the individual, for action for the good of the group, for preserving civil liberty, and for strengthening such institutions as representative government and trial by jury.
> 4. The elementary school must serve the one-world idea. Children must be given the chance to learn about the world and to live in the world as it is. There isn't any such thing as individual or national security other than within a world at peace.

The Elementary School Child. The beginning point of all elementary school education is the child as he is. He is the product of a biological inheritance which is not in any material sense different for rural and urban children. He is also the product of environmental circumstances which may be far different for rural and urban children. In order to understand the fundamental problems of elementary education, with special reference to schools serving children from a rural environment, it is in order to take a look at the needs of children of elementary school ages and at some of the most observable environmental influences on children living in a rural area.

The needs of elementary school children are based upon the characteristics that accompany their physical and psychological growth and development. Books on child psychology describe those characteristic and should be referred to by the interested reader. An excellent brief outline of the characteristics and needs of children of various ages has been presented in chart form by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. The immediate purpose of this chapter does not permit more than a reference to it.[1]

---

[1] Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1947, pp. 9–10.

The Needs of Rural Elementary School Children. The needs of children everywhere have to be interpreted in terms of their experiences and environmental circumstances. The application of this principle gives distinctive problems in the teaching of rural elementary pupils. These experiences and factors of environment will, of course, vary somewhat from place to place. In general, rural children have the following characteristic environmental influences in common:

1. They have close contact with a variety of natural phenomena. The outdoor world is close at hand to be understood and appreciated both aesthetically and scientifically.

2. Many rural children are relatively isolated and have but few social contacts beyond the family and the neighborhood school. Many children have never been more than a few miles from home, and they have had little opportunity even vicariously to understand the larger world of which they are a part.

3. The soil, streams, forests, wildlife, flowers, plants of the field, domestic animals, and other natural resources are among God's greatest gifts to man. The part that the rural child can play in enjoying and using these resources is of inestimable value in his education. An appreciation of the rural heritage is an important need to be met.

4. The rural environment is distinctive in that it exemplifies in simple form, easily understood by children, the great institutions and occupations of the world. The following list of institutions and activities is illustrative of educative experiences that may lead beyond the immediate community to the wide and more remote environment: the home; the store; the post office and the RFD; the roads and the people who build them; the vehicles of many kinds and the destinations to which they go; the production of food and its preparation for the market either in the home or the local processing plant; milk hauled daily by truck or railroad to faraway city homes; sheep shearing; cotton picking; harvesting of wheat or corn; men and women in the community who are skilled in useful arts and crafts; the local governmental officials; the school and its board of trustees; the local election; the state or county fair; and many other matters of local interest.

The Rural Elementary School and the Community. It is a function of the elementary school to improve the quality of community living. The center of interest is the child growing up in the community. The program of the school should aid child development by dealing with social, economic, and civic resources and needs that are real in the community. Children should be encouraged and guided in dealing with and participating in the solution of such problems as the protection of life, conservation and wise development of natural resources, promotion of health, provision for recreation, aesthetic expression, cultural growth, personal development, and good human relations. In dealing with such problems it is desirable to bring the adults of the community into the program also. The adults should cooperate with the children in their study, not only because it will aid the children, but because the adults have much to contribute and may themselves continue to be learners. The problems dealt with may vary in extent, but not in kind, for all age groups in the school as well as for adults in the community.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, chart opposite p. 68.

The schools that center their activities around community problems not only will use parents, but will also bring in the public health nurse, social workers, the farm agent, the home demonstration agent, teachers in specialized fields in the high school, and others. As people work together on problems of genuine concern to them, community services take on new meaning and the school acquires a new dignity and worth. Such a program is the strongest and highest type of school public relations.

The Elementary School Curriculum. The curriculum of the elementary school is now considered to consist of the sum total of the child's school experiences. It is no longer thought of in terms of subjects but rather in terms of the experience the child has from the time he becomes a pupil in the school until he completes his elementary education. Thus the teachers, the physical plant, the participation of parents, the community, play and recreational activities, group and other social activities, as well as formal instruction, the tool subjects, and other organized subject matter are all a part of the curriculum.

It is essential, as has been pointed out previously, that the two fundamental elements around which school activities take place be the child himself and his environment. The environment of most immediate importance consists of home, school, and community living. The beginning point is the child instead of the subject, and the end sought is an ideal American civilization. The fundamental content and attributes of the elementary school curriculum are set forth in the paragraphs to follow.[1]

The Fundamentals and Skills. Skill in understanding and using the tool subjects (the three R's) should be acquired by continuous and purposeful use. Direct and specific teaching for this purpose is necessary; drill on ideas and processes already understood in order to increase proficiency and assure retention is a necessary and inherent part of the curriculum.

---

[1] New York State Education Department. *Elementary School Inventory.* Albany, 1941, Part II, Digest of Publications.

Communicating. Provision should be made for acquiring proficiency in the language arts, especially oral and written English, listening, seeing and observing, reading, and appreciation and understanding of literature.

Living Together. The social studies, especially history, geography, and civics, constitute the subject matter of this field. Most of the writers in elementary education advocate a unified program of social studies rather than teaching them as separate subjects. Many of the best schools have such programs of instruction. The school itself should be an experience in desirable social living, and the sharing of experiences in group activities is an important aspect of the social-studies curriculum.

The Material and Natural Environment. An understanding of the physical world, including the physical qualities and needs of people, is a major sector of the elementary school curriculum. Necessary to such an understanding are subject matter and instructional activities in arithmetic, health (both teaching and services), physical education (with emphasis on play, games, and other recreational activities of a physical nature), safety knowledge and practices, and the physical and natural sciences.

Enriching and Beautifying Life. Instruction and other activities that lead to understanding, appreciation, enjoyment, and some skill in the use of music, the fine arts, and the practical arts should be amply provided for in the elementary school curriculum.

Related Curricular Activities. The many activities of the school should be looked upon and treated as essential aspects of the curriculum. Among these activities are assemblies, clubs and other pupil organizations, the use of visual and auditory aids to learning, and group discussions in which teachers and pupils talk together about whatever matters are most important or of most interest.

Some Other Important Matters Related to the Curriculum. Other important considerations in the operations of an adequate elementary school curriculum are the following:

1. Organizing and implementing the educational program through provisions for early childhood education (especially the kindergarten); supervision that is characterized by leadership and cooperative, democratic work with teachers; textbooks, libraries; a wide variety and sufficient quantity of instructional materials and supplies; adaptations to individual differences and needs; provisions for handicapped children; the organization of the daily programs; and the creation of a classroom atmosphere characterized by aesthetic appearance, flexibility of arrangement, democratic relationships, purposeful activities, and responsibility and recognition for everybody.

2. Guiding pupil growth through home, school, and community relations, including parent education, parent and teacher relations, parents'

organizations and parent-teacher associations, and activities related to community life.

3. Guiding pupil growth through recording, evaluating, and reporting to pupils and parents.

Living and Learning in a Rural School. Many of the best elementary teachers organize their program of instruction around large units of study that are selected after discussions with pupils and parents. Through such units of study, not only an immediate objective is attained, but many opportunities for learning in the various subject-matter fields arise and are made use of. The teacher keeps in mind the basic skills and knowledges that pupils should acquire and provides for such instruction as needs and opportunities for it arise. Time for other desirable learnings and activities are provided and individual instruction is given as needs become evident. Testing, evaluation, and reporting are attended to.

An example of this type of curriculum organization and instructional activity was the program of the seventh grade of the Centreville elementary school portrayed in the motion-picture film *School in Centreville*, a record of the activities and procedures that actually took place.[1]

The teacher and pupils began the year's work by discussion of what they should try to learn during the year. What were to be the objectives of the group? Ideas were recorded on the blackboard, questions were asked, especially the "why" of each suggestion. Later the objectives were organized and the group agreed on the following list: to develop and keep a healthy body, to read new books for pleasure, to have a good time with art, to be aware of history as it is made, to learn how history affects us, to learn more about nature and science, to learn new sports and folk games, to learn and use good English, to learn to spell and use new words, to learn and use new methods of arithmetic, to learn how to act at all times, to learn how to use responsibility, and to learn more about our community and how it affects us and how we affect it.

The pupils, under the guidance of the teacher, made plans for the administration of the classroom and its necessary activities. Plans were made for getting books, paying lunchroom fees, paying for materials, seating arrangements, room decorations, and housekeeping duties. Several committees were set up and every pupil accepted membership on one of them.

The next step was to select the problems of study and to go about studying them. Again many suggestions were heard and recorded. The group after several discussion periods decided to study Centreville, especially its location and size, history, occupations, education, government, and health.

---

[1] Franseth, Jane, Woodruff, Wilda, and Keys, Zella. *Living and Learning in the Seventh Grade at Centreville.* Unpublished Report. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. Also, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *School in Centreville.* Motion picture film, 16 mm., 20 minutes. Washington, D.C., 1950.

A report at the end of the year by some of the pupils and the teacher shows how the project proceeded and indicates the wide variety of opportunities for learning that arose.

> It didn't take us long to find out the size and location of our community, but we spent about three weeks finding out how our community came to be. As we studied it, we tried to think of the many things our ancestors had contributed to it. Of course, we were not unmindful of the fact that they also made mistakes, but who wouldn't? We searched for information about the three wars that were fought in this area—French and Indian, Revolution, and the War Between the States. We found information in our history book, our geographies, from maps and pictures, from old settlers, trips to the battle fields, from the Museum, and from the teachers in our school.
>
> The study of the history of Centreville naturally led us into a study of present conditions in our community. This included occupations. We decided to find out what the leading occupations were.
>
> Farming is one of the occupations in Centreville, so we decided to concentrate on this for a while.
>
> It should be said early, that although we spent approximately an hour and a half each day working on big problems, we didn't use all of our time this way. We did other things too. Although our study of the bigger problems helped us to use and improve our reading, spelling, English and arithmetic, we usually set aside sometime each day for special consideration of skills such as these. Also, we used some of our time for music, art, physical education, and reading for pleasure. A sample schedule looked something like this:

9:00–10:30	Planning the day's work unit—How Did Centreville Develop?
10:30–10:45	Break
10:45–11:15	Arithmetic skills—individual
11:15–11:45	Music or art
11:45–12:00	Spelling practice
12:00–12:30	Lunch
12:30– 1:00	Individual activities
1:00– 1:45	Developing reading or language skills
1:45– 2:15	Physical education
2:15– 2:45	Science: Making an Aquarium
2:45– 3:20	Evaluation and plans for tomorrow

During the year many resources of the community were utilized. The school was one in a large unit of local school administration. There were supervisors of instruction, a superintendent of broad educational vision, and a principal who not only understood the objectives undertaken and the method of teaching being pursued, but who herself had been an exceptionally successful teacher. The pupils called in the county agricultural agent, the home-demonstration agent, the public health nurse, successful farmers, and parents with contributions to make. They visited homes, farms, business establishments, and places of historical interest. It was important that the administrative authorities made the school busses available for these purposes.

At the end of the year it was agreed by the pupils that among the important outcomes of their work were the following:

1. We had gained much in our ability to accept responsibility while working together on problems which we had accepted for study and solution.
2. We had improved in our ability to locate and organize information from books, people, trips, pictures, maps, and so forth.
3. We had improved our skills in expressing our ideas both in oral and written form.
4. Some of us learned the importance of studying many facts carefully before making conclusions.
5. We learned many facts in relation to the problems we were studying. They could be organized under topics such as soil conservation; history of our country; effect of different climates on the crops that are grown and the occupations of the people; how people in Pan-American countries do help each other; different kinds of occupations; how agriculture in Centreville could be improved.
6. We had learned to work together in small and large groups. We learned how to be better chairmen and better members of the groups.
7. A few of us learned how to get other people to like us better.
8. We improved our use of arithmetic skills in solving everyday problems.
9. We improved our ability to meet visitors and make them feel at home.
10. We tried to put into practice some of the things we learned.

Special attention was given to the measurement of pupil accomplishment. Standardized achievement tests and other tests of attitudes and pupil adjustment were given. Some of the tests were given at the beginning of the year and some in the middle of the year. Other forms of the same tests were given at the close of the year. The results were in most instances very satisfactory. Within a period of little more than four months the improvement in arithmetic skills was 15 months; literature, 9.5 months; social studies, 7.9 months; science, 10.3 months; and spelling, 8.1 months. Only in reading rate and comprehension was the rate less than the four or five months expected—2.7 months. This deficiency is no indictment of the project; it only points to a new emphasis in the next try at a similar project. During a period of eight months, the time elapsing between two tests, work-study skills improved by 10.4 months. Averaging the total accomplishment of the pupils, the improvement was at the rate of 7.3 months in less than five months of instruction. Other tests to measure emotional and social adjustment were given. Marked improvements were noted in the following feelings or attitudes: belonging, achievement, economic security, freedom from fear and aggression (relief from anxiety), love and affection, freedom from guilt, sharing and participation, and world outlook. Only in respect to the number of friends acquired within the group did no progress seem to be made.

This result indicates that in the next project of this type the teacher, principal, and supervisors would need to give more direct attention to this problem of pupils.

Among other things, this project demonstrated that this method of instruction in a rural school produces superior results in many respects, especially in the mastery of the tool subjects and better emotional adjustment, as well as community understanding.

Adjustments in Small Elementary Schools. It has been pointed out in previous sections of this chapter that a large majority of rural elementary schools are, and probably will continue to be, small schools, that is, many one-teacher schools and many others with less than six teachers. In the traditional small rural elementary school the pattern of instructional organization has too often been a closely graded type with a specific time allotment to the subjects of each grade. This imitation of the city and other large-type graded elementary schools has been most inappropriate for small schools. Grades and subjects have never been important, except as means to a worthy end, but pupils and their needs and worthy life objectives are exceedingly important. The means of meeting those needs and attaining those objectives should be adapted to the present situation, school and otherwise, and to the needs of the pupils concerned. There is no one best way of organizing the time schedule of teaching in a small school. The important thing is objectives, purposes, fundamental knowledges, skills, and attitudes, all interpreted and applied in terms of the growth and development of the children concerned in a given environment. What is accomplished depends upon the knowledge, attitudes, purposes, and skill of the teacher in charge.

For small schools, in order to avoid short periods of instruction for numerous subjects in several grades, various devices of organization have been successfully tried out.[1] One type of organization is the combination of grades and subjects, which includes the combination and alternation of grades of work, the coordination or correlation of subjects, and the integration or fusion of subjects. For at least thirty years state courses of study have presented these various plans and they have been practiced in varying degrees, especially in one-teacher schools.

Another type of organization is the group plan. This plan may involve the combination of children of different ages or grades for instruction in integrated subject-matter fields such as language and the various social studies. Or it may involve the integration of the entire field of instruction through projects or large units of study. One form of this type of organization for one-teacher schools is to replace the usual six, seven, or eight

---

[1] Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Organization of the Curriculum for One-teacher Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1933, pp. 5–8.

CHART 1. A DAILY SCHEDULE ARRANGED FOR LEARNING UNITS IN A SMALL SCHOOL[a]

Time	Number of minutes[b]	Schedule of blocks or periods[c]	Group activities		
			Group C (grades 1, 2–3)	Group B (grades 4–6)	Group A (grades 7–8)
8:30	.....	*Informal morning period.*	Individual conferences with pupils arriving early.		
9:00	15–20	Block I—*morning assembly.*	All children.		
9:15 or 9:20	55–60	Block II—*Work or conference period.* Problems arising from major learning units in progress, centering chiefly around interests in *social studies* or *science.*	Reading, conversation, construction activities, and the like, arising from major interests. Group and individual activities, having meaning for these children.	More complex activities than in Group C. Interest largely in "*what?*" with a beginning of questioning "why?" Interests more extended in space and time.	Still more complex activities, with interest more and more in "why?" and greater ability to generalize and draw conclusions.
10:15	15	*Recess.*	All children.		
10:30	90	Block III—*skills period.* Development of tool abilities, with individual needs stressed. Group guidance offered when desirable. Skills in *arithmetic* and *reading* and *other language* tools included.	Major attention to reading, and to other tools needed by the child to carry out his plans. All drill activities under direct guidance of teacher, or closely supervised.	In Groups B and A, group lines may often be disregarded and help given individually, or to small groups having a common need. Individual diagnosis and remedial helps, and individual progress in achieving new skills, are emphasized. Children will be working for personal development and growth, rather than to complete teacher-assigned quotas of work.	
12:00	60	*Lunch and play period.* Play period before lunch, out of doors, if possible.	All children.		
1:00	75	Block IV—*expression period.* Development of self-expression through various mediums. *Art* and *music* each given emphasis 1 day a week. *Language expression* in various forms.	Both group and individual experiences. Poetry, story, etc., music and art forms presented for enjoyment. Freedom to explore many mediums of expression, and to develop skill in some.	Similar in inclusion to Group C, but on the interest level of older children.	Similar in type, but on the interest level of still older children.
2:15	15	*Recess.*	All children.		
2:30	70–80	Block V—*Work or conference period.* Further opportunity to work with major problems, to continue individual work for the development of skills, or to develop minor units. *Health* and *club activities* provided.	Further group work or attention to needed skills. Early dismissal or free period, following a *closing period.* For children who must remain, a play corner and other centers of interest are helpful.	Similar to block II, or a continuation of the work of block III, as needed.	Similar to block II, or a continuation of the work of block III, as needed.
3:40–3:50	10–20	Block VI—*Closing period.*	Putting everything away and seeing that everything is in order before the closing of the school day.		

---

[a] Adapted from Ade, Lester K. *Special Opportunities of Small Rural Schools.* Bulletin No. 230. Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1939, p. 83. (Bulletin written by Lois M. Clark.) This program is suggestive only. Teachers should plan their own, to meet needs of the children they teach.

[b] All time allotments are flexible, subject to variation from day to day as needs change.

[c] The sequence suggested here may be varied, but time should be allotted for planning by the children, emphasis on awareness of need, and self-evaluation.

grades with three groups, Group A (advanced), Group B (intermediate), and Group C (primary). First-year pupils are given instruction in reading as a separate class, may or may not be given instruction in formal number work, and for all other work are a part of the primary group. No attention is given to grade promotions. Achievement is tested and checked, and individual instruction is given according to needs.

For some units of instruction, or projects, it has been found feasible and desirable for the whole school to combine in the development of a single unit. In such cases pupils work on their own level of development and accomplishment, older pupils help younger ones, and individual or small group instruction is given by the teacher as needed.

These plans of instructional organization and teaching are equally applicable whether the school has only one teacher or two or three.

In any event the teacher needs to have a broad general education, know a lot about child growth and development, be a master of good teaching techniques, know rural life, and understand and like community living in the open country or a hamlet. She also needs the assistance of expert supervision, and many other resources and materials of instruction that can and should be available from the larger unit of school administration. Most small rural schools in the past have had none of these resources and advantages.

What does the daily schedule of work look like in a small rural school organized as has been indicated above? There are many different examples, but without trying to recommend any one best schedule the one suggested in Chart 1 is presented as indicative of what a good schedule may be like. Although the schedule presented is in terms of a one-teacher, eight-grade school, it is easily adaptable to a school with fewer grades or more teachers.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. For your state and county, find out how many elementary schools of various sizes are serving rural children. Estimate the future number of elementary schools, assuming a reorganization according to principles presented in Chapter 19. What will you have to know about the number of hamlets, villages, and communities having cities closely related to rural life? In the absence of surveys, after submitting criteria for guiding judgment and estimates, get the opinion of county or other intermediate-unit superintendents. Experience in reorganized units will be good guides.

2. Outline a schedule for organizing the daily program for elementary schools having two, three, four, five, and six teachers and six grades.

3. For a selected community or school, in cooperation with the teachers make a survey of resources and deficiencies, select problems that will make useful and interesting projects and outline procedures for organizing the instructional program around one of them that seems to be urgent and practicable.

4. With a group of teachers and parents develop the characteristics and specifications of a program and facilities for the elementary school of a selected neighborhood. The objective should be the specifications for a good school for the neighborhood selected.

5. Make a chart of the psychological characteristics, the physical development, the need, and appropriate educational activities and subject matter for pupils of the following age groups: ages five, six, and seven years; ages eight, nine, and ten years; and ages eleven, twelve, and thirteen years.

6. With the aid of a group of teachers and parents in a rural community, make a list of experiences, problems, and environmental influences that should be considered as basic information in planning the instructional program of the rural elementary school in the community selected.

7. Draw up a program of play, recreational, and physical educational activities in a small elementary school (not to exceed six teachers).

8. What services do teachers in small rural schools need from an adequate administrative unit?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ade, Lester K. *Special Opportunities of Small Rural Schools.* Bulletin No. 3200. Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1939. (Bulletin written by Lois M. Clark.)

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1947.

Bathurst, Effie G. *Schools Count in Country Life.* Bulletin No. 8. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1947.

Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. *Enriching the Curriculum for the Elementary School Child.* Eighteenth Yearbook, Vol. XVIII, No. 6, July, 1939.

———. "The Rural Child in the Elementary School," *National Elementary Principal.* Vol. XXIX, No. 5, April, 1950.

Department of Rural Education, and American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, National Education Association. *Health and Physical Education in Small Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1948.

———. *Physical Education in Small Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1949.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Child Development and the Tool Subjects in Rural Areas.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1941.

———. *Newer Types of Instruction in Small Rural Schools.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1938.

———. *Organization of the Curriculum for One-teacher Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1933.

———. *School in Centreville.* Motion picture film, 16 mm., 20 minutes. Washington, D.C., 1950.

Dunn, Fannie W. *The Child in the Rural Environment.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1951.

Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. *Education for All American Children.* Washington, D.C., 1948.

Lee, J. Murray, and Lee, Dorris M. *The Child and His Curriculum.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940.

New York State Education Department. *Elementary School Inventory.* Albany, 1941. Part II, "Digest of Publications."

Reavis, William C. *The Elementary School.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

Wofford, Kate V. *Modern Education in the Small Rural School.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938.

———. *Teaching in Small Schools.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946.

CHAPTER 9

THE EDUCATION OF RURAL YOUTH

One of the significant developments in American education during the last eighty years has been the increase in the number of young people who attend high school. In 1870 our public high schools enrolled only 80,227 pupils. By 1900 this figure had increased to 519,251; by 1930 to 4,399,422; and by 1945–1946 to 5,622,197. During this period there was, of course, a large increase in school enrollment and in total population. It is, therefore, significant to note that the percentage of the total enrollment of pupils in high school increased from 1.2 in 1870 to 3.3 in 1900, to 17.1 in 1930, and to 24.1 in 1945–1946.[1] In 1890, 0.32 per cent of the total population was enrolled in public high schools. In 1900, the percentage had increased to 0.68; in 1930, to 3.58; and in 1946, to 4.02. While we have not attained universality of secondary education, it is evident that we are making rapid progress toward that goal.

Why Universal Secondary Education Is Desirable. Even though some American youth go to high school because of family pressure or a half-conscious belief that such attendance is "good form," there is a growing realization that the increasing complexity of modern life is making a high school education almost essential for the preparation of a competent citizen.

1. It is obvious that we are facing many new social, economic, and governmental problems. There is need for clear thinking as regards theories of government: democracy, nazism, communism, and capitalism and their various modifications. We cannot expect young people to have an unswerving faith in our democracy unless they have had an opportunity to understand as vividly as possible the implications of the various conceptions of government.

New problems are arising as regards the place of local, state, and Federal units in making government effective. Believing as we do that responsibility should be kept as close as possible to the people themselves, there should be more complete understanding as to how a community may deal with such problems as education, taxation, welfare, recreation, and health.

---

[1] "Statistical Summary of Education, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1949, Chap. I, p. 18.

In recent years we have seen the growth of governmental policies and services in the form of social security, price-support programs, aid to certain types of education, control of various interstate activities, and the like. Citizens should understand the possibilities of and the dangers in such policies from the point of view of keeping our democracy functioning effectively.

There are problems in rural-urban relations that should be of concern to everyone. The city dwellers should recognize that farmers must receive a reasonable price for their products in order that they may purchase the products of industry. Likewise, farmers must realize that a prosperous urban population is necessary if farming is to be profitable. Both city and country should be concerned that health and sanitary conditions are in accordance with modern standards.

Before us at the present time is one of the most difficult problems of government—how may we as Americans participate in the development of effective forms of international cooperation?

While maturity and participation are necessary for a full understanding of the foregoing and similar problems, young people have a right to expect that the high school will go as far as it can in helping them develop real understanding. Much can be done, especially as a more functional type of secondary education is developed and more effective methods of teaching and learning are utilized.

2. The vocational life of American citizens is becoming more complex. In agriculture there needs to be wiser planning of production in the light of national and international needs. Conservation of our natural resources, especially of our soils, is a pressing problem. Efficient management, involving proper accounting, the use of farm machinery, and the marketing of farm products, is certain to have a considerable influence upon the economic status of the American farmer.

In homemaking the girl may learn much that will enable her to be a more intelligent mother and homemaker. Problems of nutrition, of home decoration, of consumer education, and of child care are just a few of the many problems she will have to face in adult life.

Probably nowhere has our American genius shown itself to better advantage than in the development of our industries. New industrial developments require new knowledge and new techniques if the worker is to be able to move ahead to a higher level of competency in his occupation. He needs to acquire related knowledge in mathematics, chemistry, and other sciences. Employer-employee relationships are assuming increasing importance, and gradually our knowledge in respect to these important problems is growing. The effect that industrial development is having on our national life needs to be understood. Preparation in certain forms of industry is important for the rapidly increasing rural-nonfarm group that lives on farms but works in the city, and for those who manage small industrial concerns in the rural village. For that considerable percentage of rural youth who go to the city to find occupational opportunity, there should be some form of preparation for an industrial occupation if they are to find satisfaction and to receive an adequate income when they do go to the city.

Likewise, opportunities in business are increasing. New procedures in bookkeeping and accounting call for more than the elements of these subjects. In many cases it is necessary for the participant in a business concern to learn the use of a new type of business machine. The secretary is required to add to skill in typing and stenography an understanding of her employer's business. Even the clerk in a small-town store is finding that she must know more about the goods she sells and more about how to deal with customers, else they will drive to another center where service is better. The owner of a small local store or the manager of a small chain-store unit needs not only special training in modern business practices but a good background of economic theory if he is to be successful in our highly competitive business world.

Especially should it be emphasized that farming is not an occupation demanding little knowledge and ability. Actually, the farmer is the manager of a small business, involving wise planning, the use of superior methods of production, and good management. While it may be necessary for government to establish policies that will protect the farmer from unrestricted competition both at home and abroad, in the long run the farmer's problems will be solved, not by governmental control, but by developing the farmer's understanding and ability in his field of work. Farming should move further in the direction of becoming a profession.

The foregoing illustrate types of problems that call for not only more education but a more functional type of education. In many cases even the completion of a secondary school will not give the type of preparation that life may demand. It is, however, an essential education for all who would participate with understanding in our modern complex world. The need is no less for rural than it is for urban youth.

Number of Urban and Rural High Schools. In 1945–1946 there were 23,947 public high schools, 71.7 per cent of which were in the rural areas with 31.9 per cent of the enrollment and 37.1 per cent of the instructional staff (Table 25).

TABLE 25. DATA REGARDING PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, URBAN AND RURAL, 1945–1946[a]

Type of school	Number of schools		Enrollment		Number in instructional staff	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Regular high school	2,274	11,351	1,529,686	1,165,306	74,818	67,452
Reorganized high school	4,499	5,823	3,179,300	1,045,332	137,813	51,911
Both	6,773	17,174	4,708,986	2,210,638	202,631	119,363
Total	23,947		6,919,624		321,994	

[a] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C., 1949, Tables 6, 7, 8. Not included in this table are 133 ungraded high schools (mainly vocational) and 234 high schools with an enrollment under 10.

How Far Has Universality of Secondary Education Been Achieved? Table 26 shows how far short of the desired goal the American people have been in the recent past. Certain implications in these data should be noted. In the first place, there is considerable difference in the median years of schooling completed by city, nonfarm, and farm people. In the second place, the younger group in our population, those between the ages of twenty and twenty-four, have had more schooling than those twenty and over or twenty-five and over. We are making progress.

TABLE 26. MEDIAN YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, BY AGES, 1940[a]

	20 and over	20–24	25 and over
United States	8.8	11.2	8.6
Urban	9.0	12.0	8.8
Rural-nonfarm	8.7	10.7	8.6
Rural-farm	8.2	8.8	8.1

[a] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1943, Vol. IV, Part 1, Table 23.

Proportion Attending High School in Rural Areas. The following tabulation, made from data in Table 3, shows the percentage of the entire public school enrollment that is in the public secondary school. While the secondary enrollment has greatly improved since 1929–1930 in all rural areas as compared with cities, the latter still show a 3 per cent superiority. At this point attention may be called again to Figure 1, showing that the total enrollment in high schools is lowest in the states with the highest per cents of rural population and is highest in the states

Percentage of Total Public-school Enrollment in Public Secondary Schools

	1929–1930	1939–1940	1947–1948
United States	17.1	25.9	23.6
Urban areas	21.5	28.6	25.1
All rural areas	12.8	23.0	22.1
Rural-nonfarm areas	....	23.0	21.9
Rural-farm areas	....	23.0	22.5

with the lowest per cents of rural population. Secondary education is clearly a challenging problem in the rural areas.

Some Factors Affecting Secondary Enrollments in Rural Areas. In seeking improvement in secondary education for rural youth, certain conditions that prevail must be recognized and, so far as possible, overcome.

Many Rural High Schools Are Small. In 1945–1946 the mean enrollment in the rural high school was 128 as compared with 696 in the city.

Recent data are not available showing the distribution of rural high schools according to size of enrollment. However, Table 27 does give the distribution by size of all high schools for four different years. Probably most of those below a 200 enrollment and some in the 200-to-299 bracket are rural schools.

In interpreting this table, it should be understood that all types of

Table 27. Percentage of All Public High Schools by Size, 1930, 1938, 1946, and 1948

Enrollment	1930[a]	1938[a]	1946[a]	1948[b]
10–24	9.4	5.6	4.1	16.8
24–49	17.4	10.7	11.2	
50–74	15.8	12.4	13.0	25.2
75–99	11.4	10.8	10.6	
100–199	20.7	26.1	24.7	37.0
200–299	7.3	10.4	11.0	
300–499	6.7	9.2	10.0	21.00
500–999	6.4	7.9	9.3	
1,000–2,499	4.2	5.9	5.5	
2,500 or more	0.7	1.0	0.6	

[a] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C., 1949, Table 2, p. 5. These data include all types of high schools: junior, senior, junior-senior, and 4-year.

[b] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 194.

high school are included. In 1946, 78.7 per cent of the 13,625 regular high schools (which usually include the last four high school years) had an enrollment below 200; 58 per cent of the reorganized high schools (which frequently include grades below the last four) had an enrollment of less than 300.

It is altogether likely that, since the small high school cannot offer as broad a program as a large one, the former is less attractive to pupils. Thus, in New York in 1939–1940, a study of 15,896 pupils enrolled in 49 high schools of the state showed that in the city schools 71 per cent graduated; in the village schools, 64 per cent did so; in all rural schools, 56 per cent; while in rural high schools with an enrollment under 100 only 31 per cent of the boys[1] completed the twelfth grade.

However, other factors than size influence the attendance of rural youth in high school. Sparsity of population, extent of road development, severity of the climate—all affecting the transportation of pupils—are likewise important. To insist on an absolute enrollment minimum—no matter how much this may be justified on educational grounds—would probably have the effect of reducing the number of rural youth attending high school in many rural sections.

As conditions affecting transportation improve, as small districts combine into larger community schools, and as strong intermediate units that supplement the educational facilities of local districts develop, the rural high school program will be more effective.

Too Many Drop Out before Completing High School. It is important not only to get all youth into the high school but to hold through to graduation all who give evidence of profiting from that training. There are no data for the nation as a whole showing the number who drop out before completing the twelfth grade, but Table 28 presents information that permits an estimate of this number. Since this table shows the number per 1,000 of those in the fifth grade enrolled in each succeeding grade, there is involved not only the factor of dropping out but factors of retardation and acceleration.

It is disconcerting to realize how many pupils leave school as soon as the compulsory education law permits them to do so. It is, however, encouraging to note that, except during the war years, the holding power of the school has been increasing. The graduates in 1934 were 33.3 per cent of the fifth-grade enrollment eight years earlier; in 1940, it was 45.5 per cent; in 1942, the high year, 46.7 per cent; in 1946, 41.9 per cent. As figures become available for later years, they are likely to show that the 1942 record has been exceeded.

---

[1] Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas.* Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1946, pp. 31, 32.

Table 28. Number Continuing per 1,000 Pupils Enrolled in the Fifth Grade, Selected Years, 1926–1927 to 1938–1939[a]

Grade or year	1926–1927	1929–1930	1932–1933	1935–1936	1938–1939
Elementary:					
Fifth	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Sixth	919	954	935	946	955
Seventh	824	861	889	889	908
Eighth	754	825	831	839	853
High school:					
I	677	760	786	814	796
II	552	647	664	725	655
III	453	512	570	587	532
IV	400	454	510	466	444
Graduates	333	403	455	439	419
Year of graduation	1934	1937	1940	1943	1946

[a] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistical Summary of Education, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*. Washington, D.C., 1949, Table 29, Chap. 1. For schools with 11 years only in their systems, the enrollment given for the fifth grade is actually that for the fourth grade.

This problem is not equally serious throughout the country. In 1946, the three highest states as regards holding power were: Montana, with 731; Wisconsin, with 671; and South Dakota, with 637. The three with the lowest holding power were: Mississippi, with 204; Alabama, with 238; and Georgia, with 278.[1]

Only about 53 per cent in 1946 of those in the ninth grade four years earlier had graduated, representing a school-leaving rate of 47 per cent in those years. However, some had reached the end of the compulsory school period before grade 9 and had dropped out; a fair number had been retarded and were still in high school, and a few had been accelerated and had completed the high school a year or more earlier than most members of the class. Probably the dropout rate in the entire nation is over 50 per cent.[2]

Do rural pupils drop out to a greater extent than city pupils? According to the Office of Education, a sample study of the nation in 1949 indicated that the estimated percentage of those fourteen to seventeen years old attending school was 85 in the cities, 82 in the rural-nonfarm areas, and only 75 in the farm areas.[1] In this connection attention is again called to Figure 1, Chapter 1.

---

[1] Research Division, National Education Association. *547 Have Gone*. Federal Aid Series No. 3. Washington, 1948, p. 21 (mimeographed).

[2] Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Tompkins, Ellsworth. *Holding Power and Size of High Schools*. Circular 322. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1950, p. 19.

Many factors enter into school leaving. The following brief reports of three studies indicate at least some of the factors that are influential. These factors suggest where effort should be directed in the attempt to increase the school's holding power.

What is probably the most extensive study of dropouts in the rural areas has been made in New York covering the period between October, 1940, and October, 1945.[2] This study followed other studies of a similar nature.[3] Here persistence in school was measured not by the grade enrollment but by locating each dropout.

The study is based upon reports from 29,001 youth, which was 75 per cent of the number enrolled in the eighth grade of the rural supervisory districts in 1940–1941. This group was then followed through the next five years. In October, 1945, it was found, on the basis of returns from 85 per cent of the pupils originally included, that 47 per cent of those in the eighth grade in October, 1940, had been graduated, 48 per cent were reported as having left before graduation, and 5 per cent were still in high school.

Of all pupils in the eighth grade, 17 per cent left school during the eighth or the ninth grade, while 22 per cent left during the tenth or the eleventh grade. One factor of probable significance in this was the unusual opportunity for work during the war and the demands of military service.

Questions demanding thoughtful consideration are suggested by the following data: (1) Pupils leaving school exceeded those staying in school where the fathers were engaged in manual, craft, and agricultural occupations. The reverse was slightly true where the fathers were engaged in service and markedly true where they were in professional and managerial or clerical and sales work. (2) Forty-five per cent of the school leavers had average or above average academic records. (3) A much larger percentage of pupils stayed in school than left who were rated as possessing such personal qualities as ambition, cooperative attitude, dependability, initiative, and self-confidence. (4) Reasons given for leaving school in all grades from the eighth through the eleventh were (in order of frequency) desire to work (lure of high wages); lack of interest, ambition, or incentive; inability to do school work; entrance into the armed services; financial need; being needed in the home; and marriage.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

[2] Weinrich, Ernest F., and Soper, Wayne W. *A Five-year Study of the Adjustment of Rural Schools to the Needs of Youth.* Bulletin No. 1379. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1949.

[3] Bulletin Nos. 1195 (1940), 1239 (1942), and 1251 (1943). Albany: New York State Education Department.

As the result of a study of about 1,300 school leavers in the small towns of Jackson County, Michigan, in Lansing, Michigan, and in Cleveland and Cincinnati, Ohio, Dillon suggests seven "symptoms of vulnerability" to early leaving: fairly consistent regression in scholarship from elementary to junior to senior high school; frequent grade failures in the elementary school; high frequency of grade or subject failures in the junior and senior high schools; marked regression of attendance from elementary to junior to senior high school; frequent transfers from one school to another; evidence of a feeling of insecurity or "lack of belonging" in school; and marked lack of interest in school work.[1] By giving attention to these symptoms as they become evident in the case of individual boys and girls, school authorities should be able to reduce or eliminate some of the causes of dropping out. It is important that the prospective dropout be located as early as possible; to wait until he leaves or announces that he intends to leave is usually too late.

Most of the studies seeking to get at causes of dropping out depend upon simple statistical analyses and the replies from the youth concerned. The replies are useful, but there is always danger that a young person may give as the reasons for quitting school not the real reasons (even if he knows them) but the reasons that will put him in the best light. While most school systems cannot go much beyond such techniques, two recent studies using other techniques are of sufficient merit to warrant mention.

Gragg, studying the dropout situation in New Haven, Connecticut, used correlation techniques in getting at social, economic, and educational conditions related to this problem. He found that dropouts, in contrast with graduates, were living in low-rent areas; areas with low educational attainment as measured by median years of school completed; areas lacking central heating in the home; areas having a high incidence of unemployment among workers. To a lesser degree there was a relationship between dropping out and the median age of the population, the dwelling units needing major repairs, lack of refrigeration in the home, illiteracy, and a high proportion of foreign-born white residents.[2] In addition to these factors, largely social and economic, Gragg found certain educational factors to be significant: retardation amounting to two or more grades; rank in lowest decile on an intelligence, aptitude, or achievement test; absence from school of more than one-third of the school days in the year immediately preceding the reaching of the maximum age of compulsory attendance; and failure in school marks in more than two subjects in the year immediately preceding the reaching of the maximum age of compulsory attendance.[1]

---

[1] Dillon, Harold J. *Early School Leavers.* New York: National Child Labor Committee, p. 82.

[2] Gragg, William L. "Utilization of Census Data in Statistical Analysis of School Drop-out Problems." *Journal of Experimental Education,* Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 147–151.

The study just described deals with a city school. That somewhat different factors may operate in the rural areas is suggested by a recent study made in Minnesota. Marshall and Peterson noted that Minnesota ranked ninth among the states in school attendance of urban youth but fortieth for rural youth and that in some of the best agricultural counties the high school attendance of farm boys sixteen and seventeen years old was low. They therefore selected eight factors of possible significance and worked out the correlation figures between the school attendance of farm boys in 1940 and each of these factors. They found that four of the eight correlated sufficiently well with attendance to suggest that they were significant: index of cultural characteristics; labor requirements per farm; value of farm products per farm; and availability of school bus transportation.[2] The authors expect to extend the study from the counties to communities within counties in order to see what other factors may affect high school attendance.

Since factors affecting persistence in school probably vary among communities to some extent, each school should go as far as possible in determining which ones appear to be most influential. If the school is to hold as many as 90 per cent of our youth through to graduation, as has been suggested by the National Commission on School District Reorganization, it will be necessary for school and community to devote much energy to the problem for a considerable period of time.

Developing a Program for Rural Youth. The general objectives of rural education, as has been stated in Chapter 7, are no different from the objectives of any type of education. However, in developing an effective program for rural youth, it is essential that the school make use of the many resources available in the rural community, that it do what it can to overcome such lacks as may exist therein, and that specific programs established take into account the conditions under which the rural high school must operate.

Types of Rural Pupils. The first step in the development of a desirable type of rural high school is the determination of the types of pupils to be served. We may distinguish three significant types:

1. There are those who will go on into higher education and the profes-

---

[1] Gragg, William L. *A Study of Factors Related to the Persistence of Pupils in Public Secondary Schools.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1949, p. 291.

[2] Marshall, Douglas, and Peterson, Milo J. *Factors Associated with Variations in School Attendance of Minnesota Farm Boys.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1948, pp. 24.

sions. These young people must of necessity have those knowledges and understandings that will enable them to prepare for law or medicine or engineering or agriculture or any other type of preparation that is offered on the college level. While there is evidence that colleges are becoming more liberal in their interpretation as to the type of preparation the high school graduate should have; nevertheless, it must be recognized that certain professions require special precollege training—for example, the young man going into engineering must have a good grounding in the physical sciences in order that he may be ready to carry the technical courses required of his profession and the prospective doctor must be well grounded in the biological sciences.

2. There are those going into occupational life at the end of the high school period. Those who stay in the rural community will become farmers or businessmen or housewives or stenographers or clerks, as the community may provide vocational opportunity. It must not be forgotten, however, that approximately 40 per cent of the older youth will go to the cities. The rural high school should not neglect this group, yet the problem of providing specialized training in business and industry for the jobs in the city is a difficult one. This is the place where the intermediate district (Chapter 20) may find an important opportunity in providing, insofar as possible, those kinds of vocational preparation that will enable migrating youth to enter at once into the vocational life of the city.

3. There are those who do not complete high school, and as we have already noted, this is a considerable percentage of all youth fourteen to seventeen years of age. The problem with this group is not only to give them as much of the common learnings as is possible in order that they may fit usefully into the life of the community, but that they may find a vocational opportunity that will yield satisfaction and a reasonable economic return. The rural high school should make every reasonable effort to reduce, over the years, the percentage in this group. It should undertake to provide opportunity for night school and other types of continuation education as out-of-school youth begin to recognize the necessity of a better preparation. Here again the intermediate district has an important responsibility.

Changing Conceptions Regarding the High School Program. The present American high school is the result of evolutionary forces that have been at work since colonial days. The Latin grammar school with its emphasis on classical instruction was the dominant type of secondary school during our colonial period. Gradually the academy, a private tuition school, took the place of the Latin grammar school. Its influence prevailed until the period of the War Between the States. Since then, our public high school has been the dominant type of secondary school.

During all these years there was an increasing emphasis on a type of program that prepares young people for the type of life they were likely to lead. During the last few decades citizens have become increasingly aware of the fact that the secondary school must do many things that it has not done if it is to take care of *all* American youth and prepare them for the increasingly complex conditions that they are likely to face. There is not space here to trace in detail this concept of functional education. Attention may, however, be called to two ideas that are now being emphasized.

In the Southern states, emphasis has been given to the need for rebuilding the social and economic life of large areas of the South. It has been felt that the standard of community living is lower than it should be; health conditions are often unsatisfactory; community life has not been as vital as it might be; the resources of the region have not been fully utilized; there has been too much dependence upon agriculture; there has been too little development of industry. For example, while the Southern region had 28.11 per cent of the population in 1940, it had 26.91 per cent of the employed workers of the country, but only 18.83 per cent of the skilled workers and foremen. It had only 20.30 per cent of the professional workers, 17.59 per cent of clerks and similar workers and 20.90 per cent of semiskilled workers. As a result, it had 33.84 per cent of the unskilled workers.[1] Conditions such as are suggested by the foregoing data led a group of educational leaders, organized into the Southern States Work Conference, to develop the concept of resource-use education. The soil needs to be conserved and utilized for greater productivity. That region has resources of water, forests, minerals and wildlife that need to be protected, developed, and utilized for the good of the people. Education is seen as a major means of developing recognition of what might be done and of providing the needed training, and the school naturally was seen as the most important of the educational agencies.

Within the last few years the term "education for life adjustment" has been used to indicate the more functional emphasis that should be given to the secondary school program if all or a large proportion of our youth are to be held in school up to high school graduation and given the kind of preparation needed for modern living.

The specific stimulus to this activity appears to have come from a talk given by Charles A. Prosser, for many years a leader in the field of vocational education. In 1945, Dr. Prosser made the statement at a conference in Washington that the approximately 20 per cent of American youth who were preparing for college were getting a desirable type of education and that the approximately 20 per cent who were preparing for vocational life were also receiving the type of instruction needed. He doubted, however, that the remaining 60 per cent were being adequately cared for through the present high school and called for a development of programs that would prepare young people for meeting more adequately the problems of life. Following Prosser's suggestion, the National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth has been organized by the United States Office of Education and several states, notably Washington and New York, have established similar committees or commissions. Undoubtedly, the movement will spread.

---

[1] Morphet, E. L., *et al. Building a Better Southern Region through Education.* Tallahassee, Fla.: Southern States Work Conference, 1945, p. 9.

> Life adjustment education is designed to equip all American youth to live democratically with satisfaction to themselves and with profit to society as home members, workers and citizens. It is concerned especially with a sizable proportion of youth of high school age (both in school and out) whose objectives are less well served by our schools than the objectives of preparing for either a skilled occupation or higher education.[1]

Types of Curriculum Organization. How should the offerings of the rural high school be organized so as to offer the best opportunity for the development of a type of program that prepares for life adjustment? Spears has identified six types[2] of curriculum organization.

1. The *subject curriculum*, characteristic of the early American high school, is probably still the dominant type. It emphasizes knowledge of subject matter in the various fields, such as English, science, and mathematics. Courses are set up in presumed sequences of difficulty; these courses are organized into curriculums for pupils with different objectives; and such articulation as takes place among subjects depends upon the teachers of individual courses.

2. The *correlated curriculum* aims to bring articulation among the courses offered without changing the organization of the subject-matter departments. Thus, the development of good habits of writing and speaking English is recognized as a responsibility of all teachers, as is also the development of ideals and practices in citizenship.

3. The *fused curriculum* tends to bring together a number of specific subjects into larger groups, such, for example, as combining botany and zoology to make a course in biology and combining ancient and modern history to give an over-all view of world history.

> The fused course may be definitely strong, or just as definitely weak, depending on whether the construction approach has placed as the center of attention the life and

---

[1] Hull, J. Dan. "Purposes and Work of Life Adjustment Education." *Washington State Curriculum Journal,* Vol. 8, No. 2, January, 1949, p. 4. This is a statement generally accepted by a conference in Washington, D.C., October, 1948.

[2] Spears, Harold. *The Emerging High School Curriculum.* New York: American Book Company, 1948, pp. 51–69.

> needs and interests of the pupil and has selected the materials accordingly or whether the construction approach has been made with the replaced subjects themselves. . . . The fused course, if flexibly constructed and wisely guided, can cater to the day-by-day growth needs of the pupil.

4. The *broad-fields curriculum*

> . . . represents a definite reaction to the great multiplicity of separate subjects that were looked upon a few years ago as an answer to individual needs and interests. The broad-fields philosophy, instead, indicates faith in setting out a greater portion of the curriculum as essential for all and then arranging this common material into a few broad courses.

Illustrations of such broad fields are "vocational activities," "man's social relationships" and "general arts."

5. The *core curriculum* recognizes "a common body of growth experiences." It "presupposes certain specific types of learning experiences as basic for all pupils going through the school, but this need not mean a common fixed body of content for all." For example, two girls, one looking ahead to homemaking and the other to being a stenographer, would both take certain "core" offerings, but they would select other offerings that would prepare them for their special duties.

6. The *experience curriculum* "definitely turns its back upon a subject-matter approach. . . . It sees education as a continuous life process, as the growth of the whole individual in accordance with his environment, and it aims toward a more intelligent participation of that person in his culture." Thus, this type of curriculum reaches out into society, especially the local community, and finds experiences significant in the pupil's life that will motivate him, give him essential knowledge and understanding, and show him how to deal with the problems involved. While, logically, such a conception of the curriculum suggests that "the curriculum must enable the pupil to meet his own felt needs, not the personal goals of others," it is neither necessary nor desirable to carry the idea to such an extreme. While making every practicable effort to give the pupil those experiences that contribute to his own particular needs at a particular time, there are experiences sufficiently common to the members of a class that these may be utilized: projects in agriculture; in home redecoration; in community improvement; in developing an understanding of good citizenship; and the like.

Some Suggestions of Life-adjustment Problems. The purpose of life-adjustment education is to make effective with pupils the objectives of education. Since the authors of this volume have accepted the objectives as stated by the Educational Policies Commission, the specific suggestions given herewith have been organized about this statement.

The nature of these suggestions varies—some are services that the school may develop to supplement the formal instructional program; some are specific projects or activities or experiences that may be incorporated into the customary subjects or units of the school program; and some may warrant the establishment of new subjects or units. In a few cases references to particularly useful materials in printed form are noted.

1. *Self-realization*
    - *a.* Remedial reading
    - *b.* Correction of speech defects, whether minor or serious, in individual pupils; special facilities for exceptional children (see Chapter 15)
    - *c.* Giving opportunity for the development of creative abilities in art,[1] music, and industrial arts
    - *d.* School fairs that exhibit work of pupils; displays of copies of masterpieces of art
    - *e.* Regional musical contests
    - *f.* The school paper; the school annual; the students' handbook
    - *g.* The health program of the community or county
    - *h.* Teaching the importance of developing a habit of inquiry in any field, *e.g.*, controlling pests on the farm
2. *Human Relationships*
    - *a.* Student activities as a means of learning to work together; camping
    - *b.* The cultural contributions of any national or racial group represented in the community
    - *c.* Backgrounds of history, governmental organization, and ideology that help to explain the difficulties between Russia and the Western democracies
    - *d.* If expedient, an analysis of conflicts between groups in the community with judgments as to how these might have been prevented or might now be resolved
3. *Economic Efficiency*
    - *a.* Consumer education[2]
    - *b.* Managing the finances (including accounting) of a student organization
    - *c.* Guidance and counseling: appraisal by the pupil of his strengths and weaknesses, including the use of tests; occupational opportunities in the community; what the school does or does not do to provide adequate preparation for these occupations; opportunities in any particular occupation or profession
    - *d.* Work experience[3]
    - *e.* A school bank
    - *f.* Can anything be done to improve the economic status of the community: a survey of occupations and products; possible change in these; extending the economic service area of the village
    - *g.* Study a cooperative association and analyze its effects

---

[1] Barton, John R. *Rural Artists of Wisconsin.* Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1948, p. 196.

[2] Briggs, Thomas H., Director. *Consumer Education in Your School.* Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, 1947, p. 128.

[3] Roberts, Roy W., Chairman. *On-the-job Education in Rural Communities.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1947, p. 139.

4. *Civic Efficiency*[1]
    - *a.* What may be done in the community to conserve its natural resources (soil, forests, etc.)
    - *b.* What may be done in the community to conserve and utilize more fully its human resources (proper health and welfare programs, etc.)
    - *c.* How government in the township, the village or the county is organized; what services each type of employee renders; is there overlapping of duties; are some services neglected
    - *d.* What makes a good citizen in this community
    - *e.* Recreational needs and facilities of the community and the county
    - *f.* How does the United Nations operate; attend a session, if possible
    - *g.* Attend a session (carefully selected) of the county court to see how justice is administered
    - *h.* Organize a student safety patrol
    - *i.* Teach tolerance and sympathy by having pupils take special responsibility for crippled children in the school

These are just a few of the problems, projects, and experiences that may be utilized by the school in preparing young people more adequately and realistically for modern life. Any alert teacher or administrator may add many more of equal or greater value for his particular situation; in fact, effort in seeing new problems will result in increased ability to see them. Chapter 17 suggests other projects and experiences.

The suggestions given above frequently cannot be neatly classified as contributing to any one objective exclusively; several objectives are commonly involved. Some of these suggestions may be combined to form larger units or projects; many of these can be broken down into smaller ones.

How May the Small High School Make Desirable Adjustments? Developing a program of life adjustment is especially difficult where there is the small number of teachers usually found in a rural high school.

Sometimes new subjects or activities may be added. Agriculture should be found in every community where farming is an important occupation, yet in 1949 approximately 50 per cent only of the rural high schools of the nation were offering this subject. Home economics should be a part of every high school, yet in 1949 approximately 47 per cent only of all high schools had such a curriculum. Various health and guidance activities may be added.

However, in most cases the life-adjustment activities needed can probably best be provided through existing offerings. Projects or other units of instruction may be used. For example, food types and their values and well-balanced diets may be taught realistically through a study of family food habits to determine where they measure up to accepted food standards, planning a day's menu for a child who needs to gain weight and for one who should not gain weight, and a study of one or more vitamins and their significance for nutrition.[1]

---

[1] Cressman, Paul L., Director. *Educating for Citizenship.* Harrisburg, Pa.: Department of Public Instruction, 1949, p. 343.

Some Guiding Principles. The following statements may be helpful in making a functional attack upon the improvement of high school facilities for rural youth:

1. Analyze the pupil population so that there may be developed, insofar as possible, a program that will meet the needs of all. One part of such analysis that will be especially illuminating is a study of school leavers: when they leave, why they leave, what they do when they leave, what the school may do to prevent their leaving where further education is desirable.

2. Set up the objectives, both general and specific, that should be emphasized. These objectives may be based upon those suggested by the Educational Policies Commission or upon any other analysis considered desirable.

3. Decide upon the type of curriculum organization (pages 166 to 167) that the staff considers to be most useful in the situation.

4. For those likely to go on to college, offer those courses required by the colleges the pupils commonly attend.

5. In the vocational curriculums, base the vocational content upon the needs of each vocation in the type of community where pupils are likely to work (see Chapters 10 to 13). Use work experiences available in the community for testing the pupil's interest in a particular vocation (or in more than one) and for making his preparation realistic.

6. In all curriculums include those common learnings that all future citizens should have.

7. In all instruction motivate the pupil and contribute to his preparation for life by utilizing every type of resource or problem available.

8. Develop within the school or by cooperation with nearby schools those special services that have come to be recognized as essential to an adequate program for school children: health services, guidance services, special services for the handicapped, etc.

9. Stimulate teachers to think in terms of the contributions that instruction in their several fields may make to the development of desired abilities. This will almost certainly lead to cooperation among teachers and is likely to lead to fusion of or integration among courses.

10. Utilize the educational leadership in the school (see Chapter 18) in developing the ability of teachers and community groups to appraise

---

[1] "A Secondary School Program for Improved Living." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 32, No. 155, pp. 12, 13.

the educational program and to suggest and try out promising modifications in that program.

11. Exert continuing effort to extend the scope of the educational program by the use of one or more of such suggestions as are outlined in the preceding section of this chapter.

12. Do not use the type of problem suggested in preceding pages to pander to the temporary interests of pupils. The pupil's goals should be carefully stated with the guidance of his adviser; subjects or units should be chosen that will best contribute to achieving his goals; any necessary knowledge should be mastered even though the pupil may dislike to exert the necessary effort. Life problems should be used to motivate and to make education more realistic, not merely "easy." Any other conception is a disservice to the pupil.

Evaluation Leading to Improvement. Evaluating what the school now offers, in the light of desirable objectives, is the first step toward improvement. Of numerous methods and techniques for evaluating a secondary school, three will be mentioned:

1. Doubtless the most extensively used evaluation device is that developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. This is a comprehensive scheme that secures pertinent data about pupils and school community, significant data regarding measures of the degree to which the school is meeting the educational needs of youth, the program of studies, the core program, the offerings in fifteen subject areas, the pupil activity program, the library and the guidance services, the school plant, and the school staff and administration. Forms are provided for making a statistical summary of the several evaluations and for presenting a graphic summary of all findings.[1]

2. Another type of evaluative procedure is very different from the foregoing and has been suggested by a Committee on Research in Secondary Education in New York. This device makes certain statements about the philosophy of secondary education. For example, one statement in this philosophy is as follows:

> *The school shall provide suitable education for every youth of the community regardless of economic status, race or type of mental ability.*

There is then space for recording whether or not those making the evaluation agree "fully," "in part," or "not at all." Similarly, statements of policy as regards the major purposes and functions of secondary education are classified under self-realization, human relationships, civic responsibility, and economic efficiency. Other policies regarding guidance, and the organization, administration, and supervision of secondary education are included. This evaluative device is not designed to give a score or a rating to a particular secondary school; rather, its purpose is to raise questions as to the policies and practices of the school and to stimulate further thought and action.[1]

---

[1] Cooperative Study of Secondary-school Standards. *Evaluative Criteria.* Washington, D.C., 1950, p. 305.

3. A third evaluative device is designed especially to stimulate an interest in and an understanding of education for life adjustment as applied to secondary school pupils. This device lists 10 "imperative needs of youth." There is not space to reproduce all the details of this evaluative scheme, but we may illustrate by Need 3:

> *All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen in a democratic society and be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and as citizens of the state and nation.*

Twenty-two specific measures of the degree to which this need is met may be illustrated by one: "The school provides opportunities for pupils to develop skill in defining issues, in gathering and sifting information, in appraising possible solutions, and in proposing plans of action."[2] This and each of the other specific measures may be evaluated by checking the appropriate one of six degrees of achievement. A total of 188 different measures of these 10 needs are suggested, and space is provided for adding other characteristics that seem pertinent in a particular situation. A method of presenting graphically the achievements on each measure enables the school to see how it is rated.

Any school not content to remain complacent about its existing program may use any one or more of these or other evaluative devices. Which one or ones should be used will naturally be determined in the light of the needs and resources of the particular school. The leadership in such evaluative procedures will usually fall upon the administrative officer, but he will, naturally, work through his professional staff. In most situations it would be advantageous to bring into the evaluation activities members of the board of education, representatives of the community, and possibly some of the more mature, dependable pupils.

How Small Schools May Extend Their Program. In the great majority of the states there is need of organizing more effective local units in the rural areas as described in Chapter 19. Some states, such as New York,

---

[1] Committee on Research in Secondary Education. *A Digest of Proposals for Improving Secondary Education.* Albany: New York State Education Department, 1945, p. 112.

[2] Ransom, William L. "How Well Does Your High School Rate on the Imperative Needs of Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals,* Vol. 33, No. 164, pp. 8–46 (available also as a reprint).

Illinois, Washington, and Idaho, have made considerable progress. In some fifteen states reorganization programs are now under way, and these will undoubtedly in time result in larger local school districts. Where the county unit of school organization prevails, the means is already at hand for broadening the program.

The intermediate district is a means of coordinating local districts for the primary purpose of making certain offerings and providing certain services that small schools alone cannot supply on an effective and economical basis. The mobile unit of this district for industrial arts, health, etc., illustrates how certain services can be taken to the pupils in the local districts. While most states have much to do in developing an effective intermediate district, it is one of the really promising means of providing an adequate educational program for rural areas.

Until an effective intermediate district is developed, two or more high schools that are reasonably near each other may share the services of a teacher of agriculture, home economics, or industrial arts, a guidance counselor, and the like.

Within the small school, alternation of courses has been a useful device for years. Physics may be alternated with chemistry or biology; algebra, with geometry; eleventh-grade English or history, with the twelfth-grade offerings in these subjects; etc.

Cooperation among the staff may result in providing guidance services if funds are not available for this purpose. Local doctors will often help in establishing a health program; citizens may often be found in the community to assist, for little or no compensation, in dramatics, in band or orchestra, in athletics, and in such other extraclass activity as photography. The bulletin by Gaumnitz and Wright listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter gives other suggestions. It should be in the professional library of every small high school.

Correspondence study is coming to be recognized as a means for making certain secondary school subjects available to young people in isolated areas or to those who, having dropped out of school for several years, would feel out of place if they should return. It may even be a means of providing opportunity for a pupil in a school not offering a specialized course to study that subject under supervision. Nebraska, California, Montana, North Dakota, and Wisconsin are among the states that have made considerable progress in this activity. In Nebraska, where approximately 4,000 different pupils are enrolled in correspondence study each year, pupils may work under supervision where such a program is authorized by a local school administrative officer. While the problems of motivating the pupil and encouraging him to persist until a unit of instruction is completed are difficult ones, experience should result in many useful suggestions. The entire program is a promising one for certain youth.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Make a study of those pupils who have dropped out of your school before completing the twelfth grade during the last three to five years, and answer these questions: what percentage of those who completed the eighth grade did drop out; how does this percentage compare with national or state figures or with those of other communities near you; at what age did they leave; at what grade; what did they do upon leaving?

2. Ask a representative member of these drop-outs why he left and what the school could have done that might have prevented his leaving.

3. Plan a series of teachers meetings for dealing with the problem of making your high school curriculum more effective.

4. After your faculty has arrived at some tentative conclusions, plan a series of PTA meetings that you might like to suggest to the officers of that organization for getting community discussion of this important problem.

5. Select any particular ability that you consider to be important in preparing young people for life and plan how that ability may be developed through the school.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bathurst, Effie G. *Schools Count in Country Life*. Bulletin No. 8. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1947.

Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary Principals' Association. *Guide to the Study of the Curriculum in the Secondary Schools of Illinois*. Circular Series A, No. 51. Springfield, Ill.: State Department of Education, 1948.

Douglass, Harl R. (ed.). *Education for Life Adjustment*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950.

Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association. *Education for All American Youth*. Washington, D.C., 1944.

Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Devilbiss, Wilbur. *Cooperative Planning the Key to Improved Organization of Small High Schools*. Pamphlet No. 102. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1947.

Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Wright, Grace S. *Broadening the Services of Small High Schools*. Bulletin No. 9. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1949.

Hanna, Paul R., *et al. Youth Serves the Community*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1936.

Hollingshead, A. B. *Elmtown's Youth*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949.

Ivins, Wilson H., Fox, William H., and Segel, David. "A Study of a Secondary School Program in the Light of Characteristics and Needs of Youth." *Bulletin of the School of Education, University of Indiana*, Vol. 25, No. 6, 1949.

Jones, Galen, and Gregory, Raymond T. *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1938.

Langfitt, R. E., Cyr, F. W., and Newsom, N. W. *The Small High School at Work*. New York: American Book Company, 1936.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, *Planning for American Youth*. Washington, D.C., 1944.

CHAPTER 10

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN AGRICULTURE

Vocational education in agriculture of less than college grade has been nationally recognized as a part of the public school program since the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act[1] by Congress in 1917. This legislation, together with subsequent supplementary acts,[2] was created for the purpose of promoting and developing vocational education through a plan for cooperation between the Federal government and the several states. It is based upon two fundamental ideas: (1) that vocational education is a matter of national interest and essential to the national welfare; and (2) that Federal funds are necessary to stimulate and assist the states in making adequate provisions for such training.

In the language of the Smith-Hughes Act, the controlling purpose of vocational education in agriculture is to fit for useful employment, and "that such education shall . . . be designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age who have entered upon or who are preparing to enter upon the work of the farm or of the farm home." This basic concept is interpreted here to mean that the purpose of such a curriculum in a school is to enable the pupil to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and make progress in satisfying and efficient employment in a farming occupation.

Education for Farming Is Essential. Education for farming occupations is much more essential today than formerly. This is implied in Chapter 4 in the emphasis upon the increasing complexity of farm operation and management and the resultant increase in the variety and nature of relationships between farming and other occupations. The farmer and his family of today are no longer proper objects of the witticisms of past eras. They participate in community affairs and in the solution of local, state, and national problems as effectively and intelligently as do those persons who represent other occupational groupings. Education can claim a major role in having brought about economic and social changes among rural people. That education must continue to serve in such manner is generally accepted. A considerable share of the burden for doing so falls upon *vocational* education. The more general phases of this responsibility have been discussed in previous chapters, especially Chapters 2, 3, 5, 7, and 9.

---

[1] Public Law No. 347, 64th Congress, Feb. 23, 1917.

[2] Public Law No. 35, 68th Congress; Public Law No. 791, 71st Congress; Public Law No. 586, 79th Congress.

Objectives Are Definite. Vocational education in agriculture at the secondary school level must be explicit in objectives. This is in contrast with the more general objectives of a course or courses in the broad subject matter of agriculture. It must take account of individual pupils and their needs and abilities with reference to specific agricultural occupations. In doing so it must keep in focus those occupations in agriculture for which preparation for gainful and satisfying employment can be provided through the schools and the resources at their command. In the usual rural high school this will narrow down to farming occupations or, at most, to those occupations for which a preparation for farming is essential.

Farming Occupations Vary. Farming occupations include each of the types of farming found in the particular area served by a given school, such as dairy farming, general farming, grain farming, and cattle ranching. They include such specializations as truck-crop or market-garden farming, beekeeping, specialized poultry farming, and small-fruit culture. For each farming occupation it should be recognized that the status of employment may vary for which preparation is essential and appropriate. Not everyone who can profit by such preparation can start in a farming occupation as an owner-operator of a farm business. Some must find their initial opportunity in farming as laborers for wages; others may start as farm managers, renters, or partners in a farm business; usually a lesser number, often by reason of more fortunate circumstances as well as ability, may become established initially in farming as owner-operators.

Preparation for Related Occupations. Occupations in agriculture other than farming are included among those for which agricultural education in the secondary school is appropriate. Frequently, however, misunderstandings arise in programs of vocational agriculture in this connection. Many pupils in the rural high school who have a genuine and justifiable interest in agriculture and its employment opportunities may have neither the opportunity nor the desire to become employed in a farming occupation. At once the question arises—can they look to the secondary school program in the individual rural school for *vocational* preparation in agriculture? The answer is "No!" unless the particular occupation for which they desire to prepare is one for which preparation for farming is an essential component, and then only to such extent. To illustrate: such occupations related to farming as agricultural extension work, agricultural teaching, and employment in many of the numerous farm-service agencies place stress on a practical understanding of farming as one qualification for successful performance. Insofar as this is true, prospective employees may look to a high school course in vocational agriculture for some of their preparation. But it must be recognized that the secondary school program as found in the typical rural school is likely to have neither the facilities nor the command of resources necessary to provide vocational preparation for such related occupations beyond this point. Otherwise the pupil who aspires to employment in some one of the wide variety of occupations related to agriculture must look to the specialized area school[1] and the post-high school institutions such as technical institutes of agriculture and the agricultural colleges for preparation.

Vocational Objectives Necessary. Vocational agriculture does not offer a suitable educational opportunity for the pupil who lacks occupational objectives or who shows evidence of being misplaced elsewhere in the school program. School administrators and teachers who have responsibility for guiding pupils in their choices of curriculum are prone at times to overlook this fact. Education in agriculture is in no sense vocational for such pupils. More often than not their presence in the program results in decreasing its effectiveness for the persons it is designed to serve. There is no denying that the school must accept responsibility for these pupils. It is a responsibility, however, of the total school and not one to be solved through the vocational curriculum alone. Herein is posed one of the major guidance problems of the secondary school.

Functions of Vocational Education in Agriculture. Eaton, emphasizing the need for vocational education, says:

> Education should enable the individual to choose wisely and with least suffering or waste that mode of life in which he can serve most worthily, effectively, and happily; it should enable him to enter upon and pursue his chosen mode with qualifications appropriate to fullest service and satisfaction in it. Thus it appears reasonable that education should establish and follow through two programs: (1) A program of guidance to vocation and to preparation for it. (2) A program of preparation in the several worthy vocations of the state.[2]

Three Functions. The point of view taken in this chapter endorses the responsibility of education expressed in the quotation above and assumes further that in discharging such responsibility the particular education involved becomes vocational. Three functions to be performed appear as explicit. One is to assist the individual learner to discover that form of economic production and mode of life in which he can realize most fully his potentialities for worthy and satisfying service. A second function, long accepted in vocational education, is that of preparation for vocation, or bringing about change in the individual in the knowledge, skills, and understandings with reference to what he is to do and what he is to become in the vocation to which he looks forward. The third function is closely related to the second, or preparatory function, differing in that it contemplates the learner as engaged in a vocation and needing assistance in improving his productive efficiency or in making the adjustments required if he is to make satisfying and efficient progress as an economic producer.

---

[1] Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Communities.* Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1946, pp. 34–39.

[2] Eaton, Theodore H. *Education and Vocations.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1926, p. 111.

The Guidance Function. No one knows with any degree of certainty at what age or experience level a person should or can choose a vocation most effectively. We assume in a democracy that the right and the responsibility to make such choice is inherent to the individual. It probably is true that occupational choice is more difficult for youth to make today than formerly. Also, it can hardly be denied that the age at which choice can and should be made by youth has increased when compared with past generations. Numerous changes in our economy and social order have brought this about, not the least of which are the tendency for pupils to remain in school longer, and the increase in age and maturity required of those who become gainfully employed.

The school program has recognized the need of pupils for assistance in choosing for the future, both educationally and vocationally, by incorporating into the traditional twelve years of elementary and secondary school preparation a period commonly referred to as the junior high school, extending from grade 7 through grade 9. During this period, and as a part of the effort to enable pupils better to make intelligent choice of future educational activities, programs of guidance are being made available in various forms. A part of any such program is the service of acquainting the pupil with himself in relation to his present and future educational and occupational opportunities. At the same time a more complete understanding is obtained about the pupil for the benefit of those who may be assisting him in whatever educational or occupational program he chooses to follow. Much of this is general guidance and is needed in kind by and for all pupils very much alike. However, there comes a stage in the guidance process at which the needs of the pupil become more focal and can best be satisfied through service of a more specific kind. It is here that guidance or orientation with respect to specific vocations and their educational prerequisites and opportunities is needed. This latter service can be performed best through the program of vocational education. Prosser and Quigley have stated this concept as follows:

It is somewhat unfortunate that, up to this time, the movement for vocational education has directed itself primarily to the establishment of courses of training for direct entrance into employment, and has given but little attention to any pre-vocational training by which the youth might be aided in selecting the training course through which he could capitalize his special assets to the best advantage. Preliminary pre-vocational training of some kind must be a part of the program of vocational training in this democracy if we are to avoid the present sad wastage of human resources not only in the economic field but in vocational training as well.[1]

Prevocational Agriculture. In vocational agriculture as it functions in the secondary school, experience has shown that pupils need help in choosing whether or not to prepare for agricultural occupations. The beginnings of such help can be obtained through the general guidance activities of the school, in classes about occupations, through diagnostic tests, and by other means of building up information about and for individual pupils. This may be expected to lead, however, as it should in rural areas, to a desire on the part of a considerable number of pupils to know more about preparing for an agricultural occupation. Vocational agriculture should serve at this point through a prevocational emphasis on enabling the pupil to choose intelligently whether or not he should enter upon such preparation, and, more specifically, whether the occupation should be in farming.

Content for prevocational agriculture is selected in terms of the following aims: (1) to develop understanding and appreciation of the importance of agriculture, particularly farming, in the present and future life activities of the pupils as producers and consumers; (2) to develop interests and abilities in plant and animal production; (3) to develop skills in construction and repair appropriate to the home and the farm; and (4) for those pupils who choose to continue on into the curriculum in agriculture, to provide initial phases of preparation for farming.

Among the units of instruction from which selection is made to achieve the above aims are the following:

What use is made of land at home; in our community; in the state?

What do we produce and in what quantity at home; in our community; in the state; in the United States? How does the production at home compare with that obtained by the most successful farmers in the area?

What is the value of the products we produce?

What becomes of the products we produce at home and in the community?

What is farming? What kinds of farming do we have in our community; in the state; in the United States?

What factors influence the location of the different kinds of farming?

What are my opportunities for obtaining experiences in the development, maintenance, or improvement of crops, livestock, or facilities? (It is expected that each member of the class will select, early in the course, one or more project activities in keeping with his interests, opportunities, abilities, and needs.)

---

[1] Prosser, Charles A., and Quigley, Thomas H. *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, rev. ed. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949, p. 164.

What problems must I solve through my project activities? (These problems to be solved by the boy, in keeping with the level of his abilities, opportunities, and needs, constitute the units in the technical agricultural content of the instruction. They should be studied at such a time and in such a manner as to enable the pupils to make their plans for solving problems as they arise.)

In what ways do the occupations of our community depend upon farming, and how is farming dependent upon other occupations?

How does farming compare with other occupations as a way of living?

How does farming compare with other occupations in economic return?

What services should be performed by the farmer for the consumer?

What service agencies are available to the farmer and what services do they provide?

What personal qualifications are necessary for success in farming?

What preparation is desirable for success in farming and how may it be obtained?

For what kind of farming shall I prepare? What are the enterprises which make up such a farm business?

What is to be my program of preparation for and establishment in farming? (Emphasis here is upon the supervised farming program as evidence of intention to enter the vocational agriculture curriculum.)

It is to be recognized that the above program of instructional units requires an adaptation to individual school and individual class and pupil situations. Some of the factors which need to be taken into account in choosing and arranging these units are the following: the extent to which similar content is included in other courses such as social studies, industrial arts, and general science; the relation of the course to the general guidance activities and program in the school; the interests and opportunities of the pupils enrolled; the grade level at which the instruction is offered; and the facilities available.

Need for Pupil Participation. A very important emphasis in such instruction for purposes of guidance and orientation for vocational preparation in agriculture is the dependence upon pupil participation in such aspects of farming vocations as can be made available and utilized. Eaton has stated:

> No means to self discovery in vocation-mode is comparable in vividness to direct participation in it. In the measure that a learner shares in a given mode of life to that extent he experiences the inner reality of it. The most certain test of aptitude, interest or ability in a job is to undertake the job.[1]

Hammonds supports this point of view and goes ahead to say:

> Vocational education in agriculture assumes that at least a tentative choice of agricultural vocation has been made by the pupils, that they elect the vocational course

---

[1] Eaton, *op. cit.*, p. 134.

> on the basis of an intelligent decision. Where a choice of vocation has not been made, the pupils who take vocational agriculture certainly should be expected to have an interest in it which is based upon knowledge and experience. They should also have the capacity to profit by the course, and facilities should be available to them for engaging in the necessary supervised practice.[1]

The necessary pupil participation implied by Eaton and Hammonds is referred to in the proposed course content listed previously. Examples of project activities in keeping with the interests and opportunities of pupils include crop, garden, and small-fruit projects; rearing calves, pigs, chickens, or other forms of livestock; care of lawns and shrubbery; painting and repair about the home; woodworking and metal construction projects. Any of these activities, and others similarly appropriate to the home environment, furnish experiences which, when directed and supervised by the teacher, can assist boys in reaching a decision regarding further preparation in agriculture.

Pupils Who Choose Not to Prepare for Farming. Not all pupils who have been served through prevocational agriculture will continue into the vocational curriculum. The service rendered for them must be comparable in value with that obtained by those who choose to prepare for farming. Hammonds has expressed this as follows:

> Although what is done in prevocational agriculture may contribute to vocational preparation later for those who elect the course, it should be worthwhile in itself to all pupils—those who take the vocational agriculture and those who do not. Prevocational agriculture should not be offered solely in terms of preparation for the later vocational work. Development of the individuals and self-selection of a vocation are more important than a mere means of increasing efficiency in vocational agriculture.[2]

Certainly it can be claimed for pupils in rural areas, some of whom are the potential farmers of the area and all of whom are and will be consumers of agricultural products, that an understanding of farming occupations and their relationships with other occupations can be a valuable part of their education for the future. Furthermore, such elementary skills and abilities in plant and animal production and in construction and repair as may be developed have present and potential values whether the instruction merges into a subsequent vocational preparation for farming or whether it finds its application in avocational interests and in better understanding and relationships among economic producers in all occupations.

---

[1] Hammonds, Carsie. *Teaching Agriculture.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950, p. 293.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 296.

A course or courses of the kind described under the heading of prevocational agriculture may well be included in the secondary school program as general education. It would meet a real need in many rural or semirural schools. Such instruction could be provided best through the facilities of the department of vocational agriculture of the school, but it would be a serious mistake to attempt to meet the need through combining in the same class those pupils whose interests are not vocational with those who are seeking to prepare for farming occupations.

The Preparatory Function. When, through the educational and occupational experience of a pupil, he reaches the stage of having chosen a vocation, true vocational preparation can become effective. That such preparation for farming occupations can be made available in the secondary school is attested by its presence in the school programs of approximately 9,250 rural secondary schools in the United States serving more than 375,000 high school pupils.[1]

Adaptation to Particular Localities. Preparation in the skills, knowledge, and understandings of farming must be in terms of the particular rural area served by the school. There are at least two reasons for this degree of individuality among courses of study in vocational agriculture. In the first place, oncoming generations of farmers tend to remain in or nearby the location of their early farming experience. Those who leave are most likely to locate in an area where the farming is similar in kind to that in the area from which they came.[2]

A second reason why preparatory education needed for farming must be adapted to the particular locality is the dependence upon farms and farming for such a large part of the necessary resources for instruction. "Learning through doing" is more than a "catch phrase" when applied to vocational education; it implies the prime essential for method in educating for vocations.

Supervised Farming Programs. Each pupil in vocational agriculture must select and plan a program of participation in the operation and management activities appropriate to the farming for which he intends to prepare. This is made up of production projects in various enterprises, improvement projects for the farm and farmstead, and supplementary practices involving skills and operations in which the pupil has need for competency. The initial emphasis in such a program usually is upon the practices of production—rearing young stock, feeding livestock for market, care and management of producing herds or flocks, growing various crops, and the like. As rapidly as possible the pupil's experiencing is guided toward problems of management calling for the kind and variety of decision making involved in a total farm business.

---

[1] Figures taken from the *Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education,* 1950.

[2] Anderson, W. A. *Mobility of Rural Families.* I and II. Bulletin Nos. 607 and 623. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, 1934 and 1935.

The supervised farming program of a pupil is illustrated in Chart 2. This boy lived on a dairy farm in a community in which dairying and cash-crop farming predominated. He enrolled in the prevocational agriculture class as a high school freshman. As a result of experiences gained he made certain his desire to start preparation for farming. During the following three years in school the teacher helped him to expand the variety and scope of his experiences to lead toward becoming established in business with his father. As an out-of-school youth he is continuing to make use of the vocational agriculture department for instruction in increasing the size and efficiency of the farm business. This is not an

CHART 2. SUPERVISED FARM-EXPERIENCE PROGRAM OF A PUPIL

Prevocational period (junior high school)	Preparatory period (senior high school)			Continuing-education period (out of school)
Production projects				
1 pure-bred calf 100 baby chicks	1 yearling calf Field of beans for canning factory	1 cow in production 1 pure-bred calf 1 yearling calf (purchased) Field of corn for silage	2 cows in production 1 yearling calf 1 pure-bred calf Field of wheat Plot for grass silage	Partnership in the farm business (Increase size and efficiency of business)
Improvement projects				
Plan and care for shrubbery	Dairy-herd records	Dairy-herd records Pasture improvement Reforest wasteland	Dairy-herd records Pasture improvement Plan and equip farm shop Farm record Wood-lot management	Dairy-herd records Farm record Rearrange the farm layout Enlarge dairy barn
Supplementary practices				
Plan home garden Fit calf for show Repair water faucet Sharpen hand tools	Cull home flock Fit small tools Prune trees Fertilize lawn Splice hay rope	Farm inventory Seed new lawn Install shower bath Dehorn cows Treat seed oats Improve milk-cooling equipment	Recondition tractor Add stanchions in barn Construct ventilating system in poultry house Revise crop rotation Operate new haymaking equipment Rent additional land Contour field	Recondition machinery Paint buildings

unusual program except that, for some pupils, the opportunities for gaining experiences and for becoming established in farming may be less available on the home farm than was the case with this boy.

The following are some of the values growing out of supervised farming programs as featured in vocational agriculture: (1) they provide an effective means of teaching; (2) they motivate pupils to learn; (3) they enable pupils to build up an equity in farming in the form of capital, livestock, and equipment; (4) they improve the quality of livestock and crops on the home farm and in the community; (5) they increase the efficiency in operation and management of the home farm; (6) they develop desirable habits of cooperation, thrift, and management of finances; (7) they increase the relationship between the home and the school.

Source of Instructional Content. There can be no uniform course of study in vocational agriculture for all schools. In the absence of a uniform syllabus or course of study, to what source does a teacher turn for the agricultural content of the curriculum? The farming in the school area, as represented by the more successful farmers, furnishes the basis upon which selection is made in broad outline. The problems of operation and management confronting practicing farmers are indicative of what should constitute preparation for farming. In the last analysis, however, it will be the problems of the pupils themselves, growing out of their supervised farming programs, which determine specific course content to be selected year by year. This calls for flexibility in courses to adjust to the needs, interests, abilities, and opportunities of the particular learners. The supervised farming program shown in Chart 2 is indicative of the problems which were likely to be included in the course of study in the school represented.

Not Confined to the Classroom. It is not the purpose here to discuss the details or the procedures of course of study building for vocational agriculture. Neither is it desirable to devote any extended attention to methods and materials of instruction. These are problems to be solved with a teacher employed for the kind of specialized service in the school program which the curriculum is to provide. Suffice it to say that instruction in agriculture should be looked upon as a laboratory type of course requiring the time and facilities inherent in laboratory instruction. Included are both the time and facilities needed for field study of the farms and the farming of the area and of the processing, servicing, and marketing agencies used by farmers. Preparation for farming cannot be obtained solely within the four walls of a classroom or by the all too traditional procedures of textbook assignments and the recitation of information thus obtained. The learning experiences provided must be those which approximate as closely as possible the vocational experience for which they are designed to prepare.

The Continuing-education Function. The initial stages of preparatory education in agriculture reach the boy as a full-time pupil in the school when he can devote a portion of each day to the necessarily highly organized instruction characterizing the secondary school program. In contrast, the out-of-school farm youth or adult is available for instruction in class or group situations only at such times as will fit into the demands made by the occupation. Usually these opportunities come in the evenings and during the slack periods in farming.

Varied Interests Served. Youth and adults face a variety of needs as they become established in farming and seek to improve in efficiency and satisfaction in the occupation. The problems of crop and livestock production are never permanently solved. Improved management in farming is commanding an increasing attention. The rapidly developing mechanical aspects of farm operation have created needs for instruction which continue beyond preparatory education into the out-of-school period. Conservation of agricultural resources and land use are other areas of growing importance.

One of the more recent and highly popular services performed in vocational agriculture classes for out-of-school groups is in the area of food processing and improved diets. Stimulus for this development came largely during the Second World War when scarcity of food and the emphasis upon physical fitness served to direct attention to the improvement of farm family living through better diets. Entire communities were reached, usually through cooperation of high school departments of vocational agriculture and home economics, in increasing the amount of food produced and in processing these foods for year-around consumption. This has been especially valuable in areas of low farm income and where the type of farming is such as to provide less of the foods needed for good health on a year-round basis.

Recreational activities, home and farmstead repair and improvement, and the social aspects of family living furnish other directions in which instruction for out-of-school groups has been successful in meeting the needs of rural people. Frequently the service rendered has been the result of cooperation with other programs in the school and with other agencies usually represented in rural communities.

Instances of particular courses and programs of instruction for out-of-school groups include farm-machinery repair and maintenance classes; individual farm-enterprise production courses, such as courses in poultry, swine, dairying, beef cattle, corn, special cash crops, and pastures; management schools to deal with laborsaving practices, increasing the size of business, farm financing, farm safety, records and accounts, and cooperative buying and selling; construction and repair problems appropriate to the farm home and the farmstead; food processing and preservation; and farm electrification. These are only a few of the various forms in which *continuing education* is made available.

Experience in vocational-agriculture departments throughout the United States in teaching veterans of the Second World War has proved conclusively that very effective vocational instruction can be accomplished with the young man who has reached the age and degree of maturity when establishment in farming is a primary motive. The youth in school must look forward for the most part to his future in farming. In doing so he can and should begin his preparation. But preparation is a process which must continue for most youth beyond the period of the secondary school years to the time when occupational establishment becomes a reality. For the school and the program of vocational agriculture this calls for a continuing educational service which merges preparation for the occupation into assistance in solving the problems of farming for youth and adults as they enter or have entered upon farming in various stages of progress toward efficient and satisfying establishment.

Agriculture as General Education. In many rural high schools there are pupils who desire instruction in agriculture on the basis of its *general* rather than its *vocational* values. They feel certain that they have neither the interest nor the opportunity to engage in an agricultural occupation. They look forward to living in a rural area and finding opportunity in their environment for a garden; perhaps a few chickens; care of lawns, flowers, and shrubbery; producing small fruits; or construction, repair, and maintenance around the home. Departments of vocational agriculture can be of service to such individuals, both boys and girls, provided it is possible and feasible in the school program to provide separate classes for such purpose. It is not educationally sound to attempt to combine such instruction with that of *vocational* preparation for farming.

An example of such a course offered in a semiurban secondary school with an enrollment made up of rural as well as village pupils provides an elective unit in agriculture with instruction in gardening, including vegetable, flower and small-fruit culture; landscaping; poultry production for home consumption; home repairs, including woodworking, home use of electricity, care of plumbing in the home, and painting; agricultural services available in the community; and other units as desired by the pupils enrolled.

The Future Farmers of America. The farmer of today and for the future must be a person better prepared to assume and discharge responsibilities of participation in the affairs of his business, in his community, and in various economic, political, and social units than may have been the case formerly. This calls for a competence in the qualities of leadership not likely to be gained without special emphasis upon their development. It was for this purpose that the national organization of Future Farmers of America was formed in 1927. It has grown to embrace a state association in each of the 48 states and in the territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico, with local chapters in most of the high school departments of vocational agriculture.

Emphasis in the national, state, and local programs of work is upon learning, through participation, how to conduct meetings properly; to speak in public; to work cooperatively; to assume civic responsibility; and to provide organized recreation for the members and for others in the community. The purposes of the organization stress leadership and character development, sportsmanship, cooperation, service, thrift, scholarship, improved agriculture, organized recreation, citizenship, and patriotism. A boy merits membership and advancement in the organization on the basis of his accomplishment in vocational agriculture. Each school having a department of agriculture should consider seriously the significance of a strong Future Farmer chapter in providing preparation for farming. Information on organizing and guiding a chapter can be obtained from the state supervisor of vocational agriculture in each state, or from the official FFA manual.[1]

Administration of Vocational Agriculture. Emphasis thus far in this chapter has been primarily upon the agricultural part of a curriculum designed to prepare for establishment in a farming occupation. This alone is not enough if occupational establishment is to be both satisfying and efficient either to the individual concerned or to the society of which he is or will be a part. There are many needs of the learner both within and without his vocation to be met as a total school responsibility and not solely through the strictly vocational courses. Often there is no sharp line of demarcation between responsibility for services performed or accomplishments made in meeting the needs of persons in vocation. Consequently the vocational agriculture curriculum should be looked upon as an integral part of the total school program in which the courses or units in agriculture constitute one segment in a cooperative effort to meet the needs of individuals.

Time and Credit Patterns Vary. The amount of time spent and credit allotted to agricultural courses in such a pattern may vary from school to school and state to state. However, because curriculums are thought of as leading to diplomas or some form of recognition calculated on the basis of quantitative as well as qualitative standards of accomplishment, it is the accepted pattern in each state to recommend certain amounts of time to be allotted and credit to be counted in satisfying requirements for the diploma or certificate.

---

[1] *Future Farmers of America Manual*, rev. ed. Baltimore: The French-Bray Printing Company, 1949.

Each state board for vocational education has authority under the Federal acts to plan the pattern of time allotments for classes in vocational agriculture from among several approved arrangements.[1] These take into account the forty-five-minute and sixty-minute periods in the school day and the time spent by the teacher with out-of-school young-farmer and adult-farmer classes. The plan currently in operation in any one state should be ascertained from the state education department. Practices and patterns in this regard should not become fettered with tradition. A readiness to permit experimentation and to revise patterns on the basis of sufficient evidence of need should exist.

Need for Cooperation among Teachers. In meeting those needs of the pupil in vocational agriculture which he has in common with other pupils in the school, there is advantage in some degree of recognition on the part of each teacher that his interests and consequently his approach to learning are likely to stem from vocational relationships. Much can be done to increase such recognition in most schools. Likewise, in the courses in agriculture there is an equal opportunity, not infrequently ignored, to supplement the efforts of other teachers by emphasizing the relationships of the learning sought by them with the significance and application it has in the vocational content and in the attainment of vocational objectives. Illustrations of opportunities of this kind occur in developing pupil abilities in oral and written expression, in the use of mathematics, in the sciences and in the social studies. Failure to recognize such opportunities and to take advantage of them tends toward one or the other of two outcomes, with the learner as a probable victim in either case. One possible tendency is to place undue emphasis on the strictly vocational preparation of the pupil, thereby neglecting his needs both in and out of vocation for complete participation in life as a person and as a member of society. The other tendency is to look to the vocational courses and program to assume responsibility for the entire development of the pupil, with the probable outcome that neither the vocational nor the nonvocational needs of the learner are met as adequately as they can and should be.

The Need for an Advisory Committee. The work of the agriculture teacher is quite varied in the age levels of persons served. Furthermore, the teacher must keep his program of instruction and service adapted to the agricultural needs and opportunities found in the particular community in which he works. He must be aware of the programs of other agencies in the area which relate to the vocational needs of the farmer and the farm family in order that he may avoid duplication on the one hand and use them and their personnel as resources in his program of service on the other.

---

[1] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Administration of Vocational Education*, rev. ed. Bulletin No. 1, General Series No. 1. Washington, D.C., 1948, p. 39.

Advisory committees made up of persons who represent the school and the agricultural interests of the community have provided a solution in many communities to the teacher's need for help in planning a program of service. In some cases this has taken the form of the regularly constituted school board if the members of such board provide the necessary representation. In other instances a committee of five to seven successful and well-regarded farmers and leaders in agricultural affairs of the community is appointed for the purpose, with school representatives serving ex officio.

Financing Vocational Agriculture. Much that needs to be said about financing and equipping for a program of vocational agriculture is found in Chapters 23 and 25. In any such specialized curriculum, costs should not be calculated on the same bases alone used for most other parts of the secondary school program. The number of pupils served in all-day classes in agriculture and the average daily attendance figures fail to account for services rendered to youth and adults in out-of-school classes and through individual visitation on their farms and in their homes. Neither do such figures account for the time spent in working with individual pupils on home farm problems after school hours, on weekends, and during the summer months when school is not is session. These are not merely optional responsibilities of the teacher in vocational agriculture but services required if instruction is to be vocational.

The fact of the matter is that in many schools the scope of the program of service in the community has reached such proportions that a number of schools have found it necessary to employ two teachers in vocational agriculture. Many others are now giving serious consideration to doing so, in spite of the fact that enrollments in the in-school classes in agriculture may be considerably below those found in other subjects of the school program. Such tendency reflects acceptance of the concept of the school as an agency of community service, with costs calculated on the basis of amount and kinds of services needed and rendered.

State and Federal aid in financing the vocational agriculture program in the secondary school has been available since the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. Subsequent supplementary legislation provided additional aid for expansion of program. The extent of such financial assistance is shown in Table 29. The data are for the year 1948 with comparable data for 1918, the first year of the existence of a Federally aided program of vocational agriculture.

TABLE 29. EXPENDITURES FOR FEDERALLY AIDED VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE, BY SOURCE OF FUNDS, 1948 AND 1918[a]

Source	1948	1918
Federal..........	$ 9,817,210.03	$273,382.08
State............	6,774,358.34	220,713.98
Local............	13,782,630.30	245,937.21
Total..........	$30,374,198.67	$739,933.27

[a] Data from U.S. Office of Education, Division of Vocational Education. *Digest of Annual Reports of State Boards for Vocational Education.* Washington, D.C.

Slightly more than 54 per cent of the cost of the program was borne by agencies outside the local communities in 1948. Approximately two-thirds of the cost in 1918 was paid from state and Federal funds. This trend is in harmony with the original intention of Congress to enact legislation which would stimulate the inauguration of vocational training in the schools and assist in its support in a gradually decreasing amount as the state and local communities become more able to finance their programs.

It is of interest to note the tremendous growth in the size of the program of vocational agriculture as reflected in the increase in monies spent in its support during the thirty-year period represented in the data. More than forty-one times as much was spent in 1948 as in 1918.

The relative amounts of cost to be borne by the local, state, and Federal sources of funds vary according to the plan for financing prepared in each state. This information for any one state can be obtained from the state department of education. Information regarding the approved use of state and Federal funds is available from the same source.

A Community-adapted Program. Vocational education in agriculture in the secondary school is to be looked upon as a program planned and executed in terms of the specific community or school area which it serves. It must be planned in terms of the specific occupational needs, abilities, and opportunities of the pupils for whom it is designed. The human and agricultural resources of the area must be examined to a degree which furnishes such information as the probable number of present and prospective farmers to be served; the kinds of farming in which people of the area engage and the trends, if any, in farming activities; the farming practices being followed and the degree of efficiency in farm operation and management characterizing the particular area; the conditions of farm and family living and the needs for improvement in such environmental conditions as make for satisfying employment in the occupation of farming; and the opportunities for employment in the area such as will provide a socially and personally desirable occupational placement for persons served by the program. Rural areas usually are sufficiently variable in one or more of the above conditions to make necessary such specific analysis of each separate area to be served.

Vocational agriculture depends upon local resources as a means to effective instruction. The major resource is the farms and the farming which are at hand. This is not to be interpreted as meaning that vocational agriculture must limit itself to a perpetuation of the farming as it exists. It does mean, however, that education for farming is dependent upon those opportunities for experiencing which are to be found in the best farming that the particular area provides or that can be developed there. Agricultural education to be vocational must be community-adapted and community-developed.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What becomes of the pupils who enter the first year of high school in your community? How many drop out; when; and why? Into what kinds of employment do they go? How many find employment in agricultural occupations; in farming?

2. When in the formal educational experience of pupils should assistance in making occupational choices be made available? What should be the nature of such assistance in your school? When should the preparation for specific occupations in farming begin?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, W. A. *Mobility of Rural Families.* I and II. Bulletins 607 and 623. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, 1934 and 1935.

Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Communities.* Bulletin 1322. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1946.

Deyoe, George P. *Supervised Farming in Vocational Agriculture.* Danville, Ill.: Interstate Printing Company, 1947.

Eaton, Theodore H. *Education and Vocations.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1926.

Future Farmers of America Manual, rev. ed. Baltimore: The French-Bray Printing Company, 1949.

Hamlin, Herbert H. *Agricultural Education in Community Schools.* Danville, Ill.: Interstate Printing Company, 1949.

Hammonds, Carsie. *Teaching Agriculture.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950.

Prosser, Charles A., and Quigley, Thomas H. *Vocational Education in a Democracy,* rev. ed. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949.

Smith, William A., *et al. Agriculture in the Junior High School.* Bulletin No. 1360. Albany: New York State Department of Education, 1949.

U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Administration of Vocational Education,* rev ed. Bulletin No. 1, General Series No. 1. Washington, D.C., 1948.

ness and understanding which may result either in increasingly intelligent use of native powers and abilities as they may be applied to the home and the family, or in the development of these abilities.

At the elementary school level this program could well have as its major objective a child who is a happy, contributing member of the family group of which he is a part, conscious of his privileges and responsibilities. The secondary school has a significant responsibility in the area of courtship and marriage. Each girl and boy should be helped not only to see his function in his present family situation, but also to understand the factors that are involved in boy-girl relationships, courtship, and marriage. A program which includes preparation in this area will be of significant value in helping the adolescent to mature emotionally and socially as he matures physically. The goal of family-life education at the adult level might well be an individual who is aware of and has some understanding concerning the resources at his command which will help create and maintain a desirable family situation and who will assume the responsibility of parenthood with intelligence and satisfaction.

This type of education can be undertaken by the school only with the support and active cooperation of the parents both as individuals and as members of organized groups in the community. Family-life education is now being carried on at the elementary school level as a result of cooperative efforts of farsighted teachers and parents. In one centralized school the elementary teacher and the homemaking teacher are helping the children to become food-conscious through the use of colorful visual aids which emphasize the seven basic foods. The youngsters have experience in the homemaking center in preparing and serving simple foods. Through the cooperation of parents, foods which children learn about at school are made available in appetizing form at home; the local grocery stores have special displays of these foods. Parents are given suggestions for ways of using these foods in family meals. In many rural schools, the school lunch offers significant opportunities for education in good health, both in choice of food and in attractive and sanitary service. Publicity sent home to parents by the children acquaints them with the lunch program and gives them suggestions which help them to fit the lunch into the children's daily diets. Other rural schools provide basic education in personal and family sanitation through health programs in which parents, teachers and children collaborate. These health programs have great importance at the elementary school level, when boys and girls are forming habits and when teachers and parents have the opportunity for frequent contacts. They are truly family-life education.

Some of the most effective family education at both elementary and secondary school levels is built upon the concept of the sharing of all family members in community and family privileges and responsibilities. In some schools this may be an active part of the school program which requires sympathetic interest of the parents and a knowledge of home conditions by the teacher. Children learn to perform personal tasks for themselves; they become aware that their needs and interests must be viewed in the light of those of other family members; they come to realize that decisions concerning themselves must be tempered by those concerning other members of the family.

In a few secondary schools we can find some excellent pioneer work in the area of preparation for marriage. In one school the principal and the homemaking teacher serve as coordinators for a series of discussions on courtship and marriage which they and the students plan together. They draw in from the community those who have a keen understanding of the adolescents and who have a special interest in their personal and social problems. Participating in one of these series was a mother of a large family, a physician who was also a parent, a foreign student in whose native land courtship and marriage customs are in direct contrast to those in our culture, and a former student of the school who had been married since graduation. In another school, a minister and a priest contributed to such a program. Films are often used as a basis of impersonal analysis and discussion of family problems by children and parents together. Aside from the efforts of a few schools to bring the family into the school program, this phase of education has not been a major issue in education at the secondary school level.

Homemaking in Education for Family Living. Whereas most subject-matter areas of education have objectives other than those which are directed toward family living, homemaking education is unique in that its entire function is in that field. Therefore, it can give an impetus and stimulation and enrichment to the school and community program for education for home and family living which would not be possible for any other educational area. It can provide leadership in the initiation and execution of cooperative programs, consultant services, laboratory facilities, and a variety of source materials. A rural school of approximately 1,200 pupils employs two homemaking teachers, the chief concerns of one of whom are the school lunch educational program and adult education. She is scheduled to teach only one secondary school class. The rest of her day is unscheduled, leaving her free to work with other teachers, to visit homes, to contact parents and other adults and to meet with groups of parents in their homes or at local gatherings. This homemaking teacher is a real leader in the school and community. She has opportunities that are not possible for a teacher who has a full day's teaching load. She is free to serve as a consultant to homemakers, to take leadership in community organizations and to become a liaison between the homes and the school.

In one small rural community where there are few home services, the portable equipment in the homemaking center is available to homemakers on loan. The vacuum cleaner, portable sewing machine, steam iron, pressure cooker, and other similar equipment travel from one home to another. This service provides a fine opportunity for the homemaking teacher to help women in the use of equipment and incidentally to become acquainted with them and with their family needs and interests. It also aids in the establishment of a good rapport between home and school. One ingenious homemaking teacher made up packets of illustrative materials which would be helpful to homemakers and made them available on loan to anyone who was interested. As a result much indirect teaching took place within the community, and a fine relationship was built up between the home and school.

Homemaking teachers have close contacts with the parents of their students. With the cooperation of both parents and pupils, the teacher keeps a running record of the home experiences which children have in connection with their homemaking classes. These records have proved helpful to all teachers in the school in their studies of the child in his total environment.

The homemaking teacher can serve as a consultant to the elementary school teacher, helping her to plan ways in which the home experiences of the children may be used effectively as a basis for school programs, making available any resources which she has at her command, and perhaps teaching an occasional lesson. Stevenson has made a careful analysis of the kinds of experiences which contribute to the development of children at various age levels. She indicates clearly the need for the elementary school teacher to know the total environment of the child and the close link that is desirable between the home and the school. Her book offers many suggestions of ways in which the elementary teacher and the home-economics teacher may work together for the enrichment of the children's home experience. Among other illustrations, she reports a series of experiences in a fourth grade which centered on the kinds of things children do at school and at home in sharing responsibilities and fun, and which included planning, marketing for, preparing, and serving a simple meal. A unit of work for six- to eight-year-old pupils which had a social objective was entitled "Entertaining Our Neighbors at Thanksgiving." Another unit of experiences which centered on the care of younger children gave older elementary school pupils an opportunity to reclaim and make toys.[1]

---

[1] Stevenson, Elizabeth. *Home and Family Life Education in Elementary Schools*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1946.

At the secondary and adult levels the homemaking teacher will assume a significant role. She may be the person who initiates and promotes interest in a family-life program in which all subject-matter areas may share. On the other hand, she may be only one of a number of persons, including administrators, teachers, parents, and pupils, who see values in such a program. In either case, as the teacher who has a close contact with parents and children in their homes and in community situations, she will be able to share in a unique manner in the planning, teaching, and evaluation of such a program. She can serve as a planner, a discussion leader, a demonstrator, an evaluator, and a guide in project planning.

As family-life education becomes an integral part of the total school curriculum, homemaking education will use it as a base for its program. At the present time homemaking education must incorporate within its own framework the material which it envisions as its share in the family-life education program.

Homemaking Education in the Rural School. Homemaking education is concerned with the creation and maintenance of a home. The purpose is to help boys and girls, men and women, assume their roles as parents and sharers in home responsibilities in the most desirable ways possible, with resulting satisfaction to themselves, their children, and the community. It includes study and activities that are involved in bringing up children, and in clothing, feeding, housing, and caring for the family. It provides for a family-focused program of which relationships, health, management, consumer buying, and art are integral parts.

Since primary interest in the concerns of the home comes only with adolescence and adulthood, there seems to be no place in the elementary grades for homemaking education as such. At the secondary school level it could meet the needs and interests of at least four groups of people: (1) Since all girls are potential homemakers and mothers, they need a more intensive orientation to the homemaker's role than can be achieved within the basic family-life education program. This group could well be served by a one-year course at the junior or senior high school level. (2) Some of these girls would be included in a group who are planning to marry early and wish to achieve competency in homemaking. Their goal would be to achieve skill in all areas of homemaking and at the same time to be able to plan and manage in such a way that the home is maintained for the family and not the family for the home. (3) Another group would include boys as well as girls who have a special interest in some one area of homemaking such as meal planning, preparation, and serving, or home improvement, or personal grooming, social behavior, and entertaining. It should be possible for this group to secure intensive education in one area of homemaking only. (4) A fourth group would include those girls who expect to go to work at an early age and who are interested in preparing for wage earning as mothers' helpers and in other occupations which are allied to the home such as child care, simple catering, and dressmaking.

At the adult level there are the out-of-school youth who are approaching marriage and homemaking responsibilities, the young married couples who still have some of the immature characteristics of youth but who are faced with many home problems, and the older married group who have already met many family and home situations and problems but who need stimulation and encouragement, or perhaps only companionship in a creative atmosphere. Homemaking education has much to offer these adults. Then there is the group of parents who may be making a success of their marriage and home life, who are in a position to offer much on a cooperative basis to the group of educators who, with them, are faced with the responsibilities of educating their children. As has been said previously, other subject-matter areas in the school have contributions to make to homemaking education. The homemaking teacher needs to work constantly with the science, literature, and other teachers to make use of basic materials in their areas as they apply to home and family living. Beside the school, the home bureau, women's clubs, the 4-H Clubs, certain church groups, and such agencies in the community are assuming educational responsibilities for boys and girls of secondary school age and for men and women in adulthood.

Suggestions for programs in homemaking for each of the groups mentioned above will follow.

The Potential Homemakers and Mothers. If the school does not have as part of its general education a program in family-life education which includes education for courtship and marriage, this phase should have an important place in homemaking education for this group of secondary school girls. Ideally, this course would be required of all girls. It would emphasize physical, social, and emotional maturity, choice of a mate, preparation for marriage, home management, and consumer buying. Few skills in homemaking activities would be sought, but rather sources of information concerning the home and intelligent use of resource materials would be stressed. The girls would be helped to use critical judgment in consumption of goods and services whether for personal or household use.

The Homemakers. This group would undoubtedly be made up of girls whose primary interest lies in homemaking. A few girls might also have plans for further formal education, some even having college in mind. However, the program for this group would not be planned for higher education purposes, but rather for competency in the homemaking job. It would normally be a two- or three-year program, based upon the family-life education program and the one-year orientation program mentioned above. It would be vocational in the sense that homemaking is a vocation, but it would not necessarily lead to lucrative outlets. Emphasis would be placed upon the acquisition of skills and the strengthening of abilities in all areas of homemaking. Much attention would be given to the management of the home so that the student would have opportunity to integrate the learnings received in the various aspects of the homemaker's job and to bring each into its proper place in relation to the whole. She would learn to weigh values in the expenditures of time, energy, and money. The problems involved in family relationships would receive much attention, since feeding, clothing, and sheltering the family involve each member of the family, not only as an individual but also as a member of the group.

This entire program would be family-focused. To this end the school program for competency in homemaking would be closely allied to the home. Directed homemaking experiences in the areas of family meal planning and preparation, clothing for the family, home improvement, home care of the sick and child care, management of the home, and planning of time, energy, and money are an important part of any competency program. The intelligent use of community facilities which are available for families would be brought into close relationship to class activities. This implies freedom in school schedules for field trips to homes, nursery schools, libraries, markets, shops, cleaning establishments, canneries, and unique home-service facilities.

The Special-interest Group. The teacher's load and the interests and needs of specific groups of students would determine the extent to which special-interest courses might be offered. There are several different ways in which they might be set up: for boys and girls together; for boys alone; or for girls alone. Their purpose would be to provide specific opportunities for experiences in one or more selected areas of homemaking which would result in the acquisition of some skills in these areas. In this type of course emphasis might be placed upon the family, or the individual, or both, depending upon the needs and interests of the students. "Planning and Preparing Meals for the Family" might be the subject of a special-interest course which would have family focus. "Selection and Care of My Winter Wardrobe" would have an individual slant, although it could be carried out only in relation to the individual's share in the family budget. "Child Care" could have both individual and family significance. One girl or boy might be motivated to select such a course because of an immediate personal need to earn money as a baby-sitter. Another would choose it because he had always loved children and was looking forward to children of his own.

The Wage Earners. With the exception of those offered in the vocational high schools, wage-earning courses are not given a primary place in the homemaking program. As time goes on, they may need to become an increasingly important part of it. We need to be aware of our responsibilities and opportunities in this field. At present, some wage-earning courses in homemaking activities are given, but the practice is not widespread. They can be justified only if there are placement opportunities for students. They might include training in some types of food services such as kitchen assistants and waitresses, in child care, home nursing, laundering, care of clothing, which would help girls to be satisfactory "mothers' helpers." They would and could in no sense compete with post-high school training schools. Homemakers and employers would need to serve as consultants in any wage-earning program.

Out-of-school Youth. This group may already be served by local youth agencies such as the young citizens, groups and the scout organizations with which the school would work cooperatively in bringing to it educational opportunities in family-life and homemaking education. Some of these youths may have dropped out of school as soon as the law permitted; others may have finished high school and may be well launched in jobs; others may be at loose ends. In many ways this group is more heterogeneous than the school group; their interests and needs vary; their motivation for education ranges from low to high. These young people would need much individual attention and many opportunities for practical application of education. The homemaking center in the school would offer facilities for practical experience in foods, clothing, home improvement, and the like, and also for social projects through which wholesome recreation could be provided. From relatively simple and practical learning situations some of these young people would be stimulated to learn about less tangible aspects of homemaking such as management, family relationships, and preparation for marriage.

The Young Homemakers. This group is comprised of young married men and women who are just starting home life together. Many couples in this group are highly motivated in relation to homemaking education and are eager for opportunities to learn. They could doubtless be best served by an adult-education program in homemaking which would be conducted with a few people in their own homes. Adult education has many traditions which must be broken down, one of them being the idea that it must be conducted in organized classes in the schoolroom. There is evidence that the most functional and interesting adult education in homemaking is taking place in homes where young people with common problems gather together. In some rural communities there are active home-bureau units which serve the groups adequately in the areas of food selection and preparation, canning, freezing; clothing selection and construction; child development; home furnishing and management problems. In such cases the homemaking teacher could well become a member of one of these groups and render any service which might seem appropriate. In other situations, she might supplement the home bureau's educational program. In still others, she might find it necessary to assume the major responsibility for initiating and setting up a planning group, but later serve only as a consultant for a project for which the young people themselves would be responsible. At its best, adult education does not fit readily into patterns. It is a series of natural, dynamic experiences which are set up and planned cooperatively by all who are concerned with them.

The Experienced Homemakers. In this group would be the parents with growing children who are seeking help in child development and in planning ways in which to fit the income to expanding family needs, parents with grown-up children, and unattached women who have leisure for creative work which will lead to both personal development and satisfying home life. Many rural communities have educational organizations such as parent-teacher associations or parent study clubs. In such situations any homemaking education program for adults which is sponsored by the school should either supplement or enrich that which is being carried on by other organizations, or should become a cooperative program with it. The school has the facilities for offering opportunities for various types of experiences in the area of child care and training, food for the family, clothing selection, construction and care, home furnishings, home nursing —in all of which there would be emphasis upon family relationships, management, and consumer education. Under the guidance of the school, these adults could take much responsibility in making contributions from their own home and family-life experience to the group, and could also assume some leadership in planning group projects.

Future Homemakers of America. The Future Homemakers of America is a national organization of pupils who are studying homemaking in junior and senior high schools in this country and the territories. It offers opportunities for pupil initiative in planning and carrying on homemaking activities, for development of leadership, and for sharing in local, state, and national projects. It supplements and enhances experiences in the classroom and gives a fine opportunity for a close link between home and school. The New Homemakers of America is a similar organization for girls in the Negro schools in the South.

Summer Employment of the Homemaking Teacher. In some states, homemaking teachers are employed during the summer months when school is not in session. This procedure provides opportunities for concentrated home visiting which results in desirable relations among the parents, teachers, and students. It also makes it possible for the teacher to help students plan directed home experience based upon immediate family needs. Often during this summer period informal adult group demonstrations and classes are held. In some areas community food preservation centers have provided facilities and instruction for canning and freezing. In programs of this type the school and other community organizations such as the home and farm bureaus have an opportunity to cooperate.

The Homemaking Program—A Cooperative Responsibility. As has been stated in the foregoing pages, the homemaking program in the school must be one in which school, home, and community cooperate, and in the planning for which administrators, guidance counselors, teachers, parents, and children share. The type and scope of the program depends upon the needs and interests of the people in the community, the facilities of the school, and the training and the experience of the teachers. A homemaking advisory committee made up of a few interested women in the community, elected by the board of education, would be a great asset in the initiation and operation of the program. The function of this committee would be not only that of consultant to the teacher, but also that of interpreting the homemaking-education program to the community. The state education department, through its bureau or department of home economics, would be in a position to promote and help maintain a program at a high level. Plans should be made for a continuous evaluation of the program not only in relation to its own objectives, but also as a part of the total school curriculum.

Financing the Homemaking Department. The homemaking department can be equipped, operated, and maintained efficiently only if a specific, adequate appropriation is made for it in the total school budget each year. Its furniture and equipment, like those in a home, need to be kept in good condition and periodically replenished, reconditioned, and replaced. Money is needed for supplies and books. The spending of the homemaking-department funds and the selection of equipment, furnishings, and supplies are ideal learning experiences for students.

Appropriations for the homemaking department should be based upon a financial plan which is the result of the best thinking of the teacher, the administrator, a group of parents who act in an advisory capacity, and the students. It should be a long-time plan, covering at least a five-year period, and should include estimated needs for capital outlay, maintenance, and operation. The teacher should be responsible for preparing the plan in a form which can easily be interpreted by all who use it, and which could allow for revision each year in terms of the immediate needs of the department. After a homemaking department has been established and the center well equipped, the expenditures for capital outlay tend to decrease each year, those for maintenance tend to increase, and those for operation fluctuate according to emphases in the program.

An adequately financed department calls for a sound bookkeeping system for which the teacher is responsible and which may provide an excellent learning experience for students.

The Role of the Homemaking Teacher. The homemaking teacher is selected partly for her ability to teach in a classroom situation and partly for her skill in working with children and adults. Unless she can establish good relations with adults in the community, with her fellow-teachers and with the boys and girls, neither the homemaking program nor the children will achieve their highest possible stature. It is her responsibility to see that her program is of such quality that it has a vital place in the total school curriculum and that it draws boys and girls who are now family members and who will be the parents of another generation. We have already said that she will have a unique share in the family-life-education program and that she will have an opportunity to serve as a teacher of homemaking to several different groups in the secondary school and to at least three types of adults. In order that her school program may be functional, the teacher should have close contacts with the homes and should know the community facilities. She also needs to be in a position where she can interpret her program intelligently and clearly to the persons in whom reside the pupil-guidance function. In addition to these obvious responsibilities she may be called upon for supervision of the school lunch, leadership of a home room, committee work, and other duties which are distributed among the teachers.

This multirole means that the teacher must have good health, emotional stability, and a sense of values. She needs to have convictions and be able to defend them and at the same time to be flexible. If she is to maintain status among her colleagues, she should be able to discuss current issues intelligently and to be broad in her interests and outlook. The homemaking teacher's job is strenuous, but rewarding.

The School Lunch. For many years the noonday meal has been associated with the homemaking department. However, it is not the responsibility of this department alone; rather, it is a total school project in the operation of which all departments may share. Without question the homemaking teacher is the best equipped person to supervise the nutritional and educational aspects, to plan the meals, and, with the help of parents and other teachers, to guide students in the improvement of their daily food habits. The finances, bookkeeping, and behavior problems of the children could and should be assumed by other persons in the school.

The school lunch is a fine opportunity for close school-home contacts. In some rural communities the lunch is financed through a barter system in which children bring farm produce in exchange for meals. In others the adults in the community cooperate by canning and freezing food for the winter supply. By a well-planned system of communication, school menus may be sent home so that mothers and children together may plan the money allowance for lunch or may know in what ways the home-packed lunch may be supplemented at school. Suggestions for school lunches which may be carried by children are often good lessons in nutrition.

The Administrator. The administrator's support of the programs of family-life education and homemaking education is so essential that, without it, they would fail to become vital forces in the school and community. The administrator is the chief interpreter of the school program to the board of education and to the community. He is in a strategic position to influence the thinking of the lay public in regard to home and family-life education. As the contact person with education departments at the state and national levels, and as a member of professional organizations, he has many opportunities to express his beliefs and to support the program when educational policies are being formed.

Homemaking Education in General Education. Homemaking education contributes to the objectives of self-realization through its concern for health knowledge and health habits and through the opportunities which it offers for intelligent inquiry. Democracy in the home, respect for the individual, cooperative play and work—all objectives of human relationships—are implicit in home and family-life education. Intelligent consumer buying, desirable use of resources, effective planning of time, energy, and money are the backbone of economic efficiency. Through responsible home membership boys and girls, men and women, have a basis for cooperation and acceptance of responsibility in community life. The homemaking program should be so well integrated in the total school curriculum that children as well as parents and teachers are aware of its contributions to general education.

With a firm belief of the community in the value of education for home and family living and of homemaking education, any rural school, whether the registration be 500 or 750 or 1,000, can include such a program in its curriculum. At the elementary level it would not mean an increase in either pupil or teacher load, but rather, a change in emphasis in the program. At the secondary and adult levels it would mean an additional staff member, a possible shifting of teacher-loads, and different emphases in students' programs. The extra teacher in the small school would be a homemaking teacher, whose salary could be justified upon the basis of her contribution to education for family living, through her homemaking program, her share in the school lunch program, her contacts with the homes, and her work with the elementary teachers. In a larger school, the need for a second homemaking teacher would be supported on the same basis.

Because it is helpful to all of us to visualize ideas and suggestions for implementation of ideas in settings which are familiar to us, some problems which may be considered in your community situation are listed below. The references which follow are not exhaustive, but are suggested as channels through which interest in education for home and family living may be awakened. It is hoped that they will lead to further sources.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What organizations in your community are primarily concerned with the family? Propose a plan whereby interest in a coordinated family-life education program may be fostered among these organizations.

2. What contribution might your school make to a family-life program? Suggest an approach which the school might make to a PTA group to awaken interest in such a program.

3. How might a coordinated family-life program be implemented in your school? What contribution to it might be made by each of the subject-matter areas? Be explicit concerning a setup which would seem feasible to you and with which you could be reasonably sure of the support of your colleagues.

4. What do you envision as your role as a school administrator, or as a parent, in the family-life education program? In what ways might you assume this role and help others to become interested in the program?

5. As a school administrator, or as a parent in the community, could you make a good case for an increase in the budget which would allow each teacher in the schools time to do home visiting? What would be your defense?

6. What value can you see in homemaking education as a part of your school program? Suggest a plan whereby parents, teachers, and children might share in planning and implementing this phase of education.

7. Are there facilities in your community for helping to make the homemaking program functional? How might they be used effectively?

8. Can you visualize the school lunch program as a medium of education? In what ways do you think families might be helped to share profitably in such a program?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association. *Education for Family Life*. Washington, D.C., 1941.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Education Association. *Organizing the Elementary School for Living and Learning*. Washington, D.C., 1947.

Brubacher, John, *et al*. *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1944.

Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education. *Helping Understand Children.* Washington, D.C., 1945.

Community Service Society of New York. *The Family in a Democratic Society.* Anniversary papers. New York: Columbia University Press, 1949.

Future Homemakers of America. *Official Guide.* Washington, D.C., 1946.

Goodykoontz, Bess, and Coon, Beulah. *Family Living and Our Schools.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941.

Hatcher, Hazel M., and Andrews, Mildred E. *The Teaching of Homemaking.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945.

Nimkoff, Meyer F. *Marriage and the Family.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945.

Overstreet, Harry. *The Mature Mind.* New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1949.

Pollard, L. Belle. *Adult Education for Homemaking,* rev. ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1947.

U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Schools Count in Country Life.* Washington, D.C., 1947.

———. *Space and Equipment for Homemaking Programs.* Washington, D.C., 1950.

———. *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead.* Washington, D.C., 1945.

Weinrich, Ernest F., and Soper, Wayne W. *A Five-year Study of the Adjustment of Rural Schools to the Needs of Youth.* Albany: University of the State of New York, 1949.

Williamson, Maude, and Lyle, Mary. *Homemaking Education for Adults.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1949.

———. *Homemaking Education in the High School,* rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941.

CHAPTER 12

EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

Business is a pervasive and determining force in the life of individuals, families, and communities. Education for successful business living in our modern, complex, and interdependent economic life is therefore very important.

There is a business side to the life of every individual and every organization. This is true whether or not the individual is classified as a business worker in the traditional sense, and whether or not the organization is regarded as primarily of a business nature. In fact, a large proportion of the activities of every normal person, whatever his occupation or profession or his economic or social status may be, is definitely of a business nature. Also of a business nature are many of the problems faced and many of the decisions made by every individual.

In the light of this concept of business and its implication, business education in the high schools, whether rural or urban, should be much broader than the vocational training of typists, stenographers, bookkeepers, and store workers. Business education as an integral part of the public school program has also the opportunity and the responsibility of making a major contribution to economic literacy and to competence in managing business affairs of a personal, family, and community nature. In whatever respects life in rural communities presents specialized problems, business education should be adjusted accordingly. It is with this philosophy and point of view that this chapter is written. No other point of view is either realistic or defensible.

Conditions Influencing Business Education. Many of the rural conditions discussed in the earlier chapters of this book will continue to influence the business-education program in rural high schools. Among these conditions the following are pertinent: comparatively limited income of rural people, inadequate tax resources; insufficient salary to attract and hold competent teachers; units of school administration that are too many and too small; poor supervision, inadequate buildings, and limited teaching facilities. Business education in rural high schools cannot therefore lift itself by its own bootstraps. The attack for the improvement of the rural school must then be made on many fronts simultaneously. Improvements in any of the conditions mentioned above will enable business education to serve more effectively the youth and adults of the rural area.

The migration of a large number of youth and adults from the rural sections to the urban centers poses a major problem for vocational business education, as it does for industrial education and home-economics education. Business education in rural high schools has the threefold task of providing general business training for all who will continue to live in rural areas; vocational business training for those who will obtain employment in office, store, or service occupations or become small entrepreneurs in the villages and small towns within or contiguous to rural areas; and vocational business training for those youth who definitely plan to seek employment in an office or distributive occupation in an urban center.

Major Objectives of Business Education. A brief review of the principal developments of business education (formerly called "commercial" education) will contribute to an understanding of its present objectives. Business education is the oldest form of practical or vocational education taught in the schools of this country. Bookkeeping, handwriting, and arithmetic were taught in day schools early in the eighteenth century and in evening classes as early as 1668.

The objectives of these early business courses were practical in that they were designed to prepare youth to enter commercial pursuits primarily of a mercantile nature. With the introduction of shorthand in 1863 and of typewriting in 1872, the objectives of what was then termed "commercial education" were enlarged to include the training of typists and stenographers. These limited vocational objectives continued for many years in the public high schools as they did in the private business schools from which the public schools recruited teachers and obtained textbooks.

Many conditions and influences have converged to broaden the objectives of business education and to modify and enlarge its scope and nature. Among the many forces the following are significant: the transition of this country from a purely agricultural economy; the rapid rise of industry and business, technological development, and specialization of labor; the increasing complexity and interdependence of our economic and social life; the rise of this nation to the place of the leading world power politically, economically, and militarily; the disastrous effect of the depression of the late 1920's and early 1930's and the consequent emphasis placed upon the social and economic well-being of the individual and the family; and the multiplication of business and economic problems with which every person must deal, both as an individual and as a citizen.

From an educational point of view, potent forces have influenced the development of the objectives and philosophy of business education. The organization of business-teacher-training departments in a large number of colleges and universities has provided training for many thousand business teachers, department heads, and supervisors. These persons with bachelor's, master's, or doctor's degrees have replaced the old-type teacher whose general education was inadequate and whose specialized business training was extremely limited. A new type of leadership has developed in business education, and this leadership is exerting a constructive influence through state, regional, and national associations of business educators and through professional publications of both a general and a specialized nature.

The very magnitude of business education in terms of enrollment, the number of teachers, and the instructional cost has resulted in serious consideration being given to it, not only by the leaders in business education, but also by school administrators and businessmen. Business education is the oldest form of vocational education in the schools of the nation; it is also the largest in terms of enrollment. Of the in-school group the enrollment in one or more business subjects is as large as the combined enrollment in home economic, agriculture, and trade and industrial subjects. It is not unusual for a high school to have 50 per cent or more of the student body taking a business course. The development of business education, both quantitatively and qualitatively, is perhaps without parallel in American education.

Out of the forces, influences, and developments discussed above has crystallized a widely accepted statement of the objectives of business education, which may be summed up in two simple and inclusive concepts. There are the vocational-education objectives and there are the equally important objectives of economic literacy and everyday business competency.

Vocational Objectives. The primary purpose of vocational business education of a preservice or preparatory nature is to prepare people (primarily youth in secondary schools) to secure initial employment in a business occupation. In-service or extension business training has for its primary purpose that of training business workers to render more efficient service and to advance to higher levels of employment. Vocational business training is much broader in scope and purpose than training in the specific knowledges and skills required in a specific occupation. In addition to the development of salable initial occupational skills, the business-education program in the all-day secondary school must be equally concerned that its business trainees obtain occupational intelligence, a general knowledge of sound principles of business, an understanding of the economic system in which business operates, and a proper attitude toward their life work. Consequently, the skill subjects of typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping, for example, do not constitute an adequate program of vocational business education. To these subjects of a clerical or office-training nature, as well as salesmanship and retailing of a distributive training nature, should be added related vocational training in business mathematics, business English, business law, elementary business organization and management, economics, and personal and job relations.

Objectives of Economic Literacy and Everyday Business Competency. Business is a pervasive force in the life of every individual, family, and community. Business is a part of the life of the child when he makes the first purchases at the local store, begins to practice thrift through the saving of small coins, or becomes the beneficiary of a life-insurance policy purchased by a parent who is planning for the future. Business is an important part of the life of every youth when he accepts part-time employment, makes a variety of purchases, opens a savings account at the local bank, or buys government bonds for any one of the many purposes for which youth should be taught to save. When rural youths are in partnership with parents or are members of the 4-H Club, the Future Farmers of America, or the Future Homemakers of America, with a project, their business activities and problems increase in number and complexity. The housewife, whether she lives in a rural or urban community, engages in a large number of business activities, faces many problems of a business nature, and makes many decisions involving the economic well-being of the family. The variety and range of her business activities, the seriousness of the business problems which she constantly faces, and the importance of the decisions which she must make from day to day are too well known to require their detailing. It is likewise obvious that she must be familiar with sound principles of business management and practice if she is to make a contribution to the security, success, and happiness of the family.

The farmer is preeminently a businessman. He is a business owner, operator, and manager. In addition to the business problems growing out of the production and marketing of farm products, the farmer has the problems of financing his enterprise. He must therefore deal with banks, insurance companies, and other financial institutions. The purchase or maintenance of a farm, the selection and financing of farm equipment, the marketing of farm products, the choice of an insurance program to cover the great variety of risks to which the farmer and his family are subjected, the careful husbanding of his resources, the wise investment of surplus funds, and the entering into multitudinous transactions and relationships of a business nature involve problems and decisions that are not exceeded in difficulty and far-reaching importance by those of any other businessman. Consequently, wrong business methods, poor judgment, and unwise business and economic decisions on the part of the farmer may be disastrous to him as a businessman and tragic for his family.

In addition to these business activities, problems, and decisions of a personal and family nature are those pertaining to the community which are of vital concern to the farmer as a citizen. As a voting member of the various farmer organizations, as a director in a farmers' cooperative, as a trustee of the local school, as a member of a local club, lodge, or church, and as a director in a local community bank, to mention just a few examples, the farmer has the responsibility of cooperating in reaching decisions and in making judgment, the result of which will always affect the progress of the community.

Many other persons in rural areas in addition to rural youth, the farm wife, and the farmer need to be economically literate and competent in everyday business affairs. For example, the success of the rural minister may depend as much on his practical business judgment as on his spiritual leadership. The school teacher whose income is limited needs to know how to manage his personal business affairs intelligently. The physician, the lawyer, various officials, and numerous unskilled workers also have a business side of their life. Finally, there are numerous rural organizations and agencies such as the church, the school, the lodge, the Grange, the woman's club, the recreation association, and the service club. All such organizations and agencies in rural areas, as elsewhere, are conditioned in the accomplishment of their primary purposes by the manner in which their business affairs are organized and managed.

The Determination of Business-training Needs. In many rural high schools the business training program is the result of imitation, tradition, and inheritance. Change of business teacher or principal has rarely brought any change in the program of business education. The new teacher or principal usually has continued the program that he inherited from his predecessor.

There are many common educational needs of youth and adults. In many respects, therefore, the educational program in rural schools, both elementary and secondary, should not differ from the program in urban schools, and vice versa. These common elements are variously referred to as the common learnings, the core curriculum, and the minimum essentials. While there is general agreement that there are many common elements in business education, whether offered in rural or urban school, or whether taught for vocational or general education purposes, there is not complete unanimity as to what these common learnings should be.

Much research is needed to determine not only the common learnings, but also the differentiating elements. Studies, surveys, and investigations with particular reference to rural schools will be suggested to accomplish this purpose.

Employment-opportunity Survey. It is impossible to know what vocational business training to offer without current information on the kinds and number of employment opportunities in the area served by the school. A first step, therefore, would be to ascertain (1) the number employed in the various business occupations, (2) the occupations that may be filled by high school graduates, and (3) the number of such occupations that are to be filled each year. This survey will include not only the rural community in which the high school is located, but also the villages and small towns within or contiguous to the school community.

If it should be determined, for example, that there is, on the average, only one stenographic position to be filled every year in the school community, and that there is an opportunity for ten persons each year to obtain a sales position in the various local retail and service establishments, it would become apparent that so far as the local community is concerned this rural high school should not attempt to offer stenographic training, but should emphasize training in salesmanship, retailing, and merchandising. If, on the other hand, it is ascertained that there are several nonspecialized office jobs open each year in which the worker would do some typing, keep simple records, file letters and other business papers, cut and run off stencils, serve as a receptionist, answer the telephone, use the adding machine, and perform many other general duties, which is usually the situation in small offices and businesses, the rural high school should organize a general clerical curriculum based upon community needs instead of attempting highly specialized training in either bookkeeping or stenography.

Many youth and adults migrate to the urban centers either through necessity or as a result of choice. Consequently, an employment opportunity survey should be extended to the nearby larger centers in which youth from rural high schools seek employment.

Follow-up Study. The rural high school should make a continuous follow-up study of its graduates and dropouts. Such a study will reveal, for example, answers to such questions as (1) what job did the student enter after leaving school; (2) did the training received in school fit for useful employment; (3) did the student receive training which he does not use on the job; or (4) does he need certain training for the job which he did not receive in school?

The follow-up study will discover those who obtained additional or different training after leaving high school. Such a study should ascertain also whether the additional training was taken because the high school program was inadequate, as in the case of many youths who must attend a private business school because they received only a smattering of stenographic training in the small rural high school. If the high school graduate obtained different training in order to get or hold a job, was that due to a lack of such training in the high school that he attended?

Although follow-up studies rarely do so, it would be of great value to ascertain in what manner and to what extent the business training received in high school was meeting the personal, family, social, and citizenship needs of the graduates of the high school.

These and other data obtained from follow-up studies will make it possible to determine much more accurately what training should be discontinued, what training should be initiated, and what training should be strengthened or otherwise modified. Moreover, follow-up studies give a reliable indication of what adult or extension training the high school should offer to meet the continuing training needs of workers. The follow-up study is supplementary and complementary to the employment-opportunity survey. Taken together they offer a fairly scientific basis on which to determine training needs in terms of business occupations.

Job Analysis. It is necessary to go one step further to determine specific teaching or instructional content. Employment-opportunity surveys and follow-up studies indicate the kinds of occupations for which the school is justified in offering vocational training. These studies do not reveal the instructional content required to prepare youth for successful entrance into a given occupation. To determine scientifically the teaching content it is necessary to make an analysis of the duties and requirements of the job for which the school is to offer training.

In determining specific nonvocational business-training needs, the business teacher should supplement the information secured from his own experiences, regardless of their variety and extensiveness, by conducting carefully planned studies to determine the business activities, business problems, and business mistakes, not only of the age groups that he teaches but also of the families which the students represent.

In making an analysis of the business activities, business problems, and business mistakes of farmers and their families, much of the information needed for curriculum building can be obtained directly from these people themselves through carefully planned informal interviews and to a limited extent through the use of check lists and questionnaires. Information can be obtained also from the persons and organizations with whom farm people have business dealings. The banker, the insurance agent, the Better Business Bureau in the nearby city, the lawyer, the real estate broker, the manager of a farmers' cooperative, and even the local merchants, when properly approached and conditioned, will furnish a wealth of information about the business activities and practices of farmers and their families.

In the discussion on how to determine specific vocational business-training needs, the importance of the teacher having had successful business experience in the occupation for which he was to train youth was stressed. Likewise, it is imperative that the teachers of nonvocational phases of business education have firsthand knowledge of the business activities, problems, and mistakes of those whom he teaches. Consequently, the business teacher usually should live in the rural community in which he teaches. He should become a part of the community by participation in its activities, by membership in its organizations, and by becoming as familiar with the business life of individuals, homes, and groups as propriety, judgment, and good public relations will permit. Through such experiences, vicarious as some will be, the teacher will develop deep sympathies and will obtain a real understanding of the training needs of the community. Moreover, he will become a business leader and an unappointed business adviser in the community, a position which any business teacher will have thrust upon him if he is really qualified to train youth and to assist adults.

Guidance in Business Education. The proper counseling of students and their sympathetic guidance into or out of business courses, particularly those of a vocational nature, is just as important as the scientific determination of the training requirements for a given occupation. Granted that a rural high school is justified from the initial employment opportunities that exist annually to train stenographers, for example, should Mary take the stenographic course? Or would she be much more likely to succeed if she were guided into the salesmanship and retailing courses? To help Mary to make a wise vocational choice in this case requires a great deal of information about Mary and the requirements for success as a stenographer and as a saleswoman.

It is probably too much to expect that the small rural high school will be able to employ a counselor or guidance officer, even on a part-time basis, however desirable it would be to have such a person. Much of the counseling load in such schools will have to be carried by the best trained teachers and other staff members. Even in the larger consolidated rural high school with either a part-time or full-time counselor, much of the counseling work is and should be done by competent teachers.

Such counseling will help to get the right pupils into the right courses, a condition on which much of the success of vocational business training depends. To the proper guidance of pupils and their effective vocational training must be added proper job placement. Here again the business teacher's knowledge of job requirements and opportunities, together with the additional information about his pupils' abilities and potentialities gained from having taught them, enables him to guide them into accepting or in seeking the particular jobs in which they will be successful and happy.

A well-adjusted person makes a better student or a more successful worker. Many factors other than the choice of an occupational objective contributes to a well-adjusted youth. Consequently, the teacher will need to counsel his students on a variety of problems and guide them in making a great many adjustments. To render this service the business teacher must know a great deal about his students, their home life, and the community of which they are a part.

The service of the high school, whether it be rural or urban, should not cease when a person graduates. Either a graduate or a dropout should be able to turn to his school for sympathetic counsel and helpful advice, particularly on problems relating to promotion, job changing, and additional training. The conducting of follow-up studies described elsewhere in this chapter will provide the business department with a great deal of information on which to base its postgraduation counseling service.

Building the Business Curriculum. If the reader expects a tailor-made curriculum or curriculums for the rural high school to grow out of the preceding discussions, he is in for a disappointment. To attempt to provide one would not be unlike a state's preparing a course of study in business education that applied alike to small and large rural high schools and to the urban high schools. The position has inalterably been taken that the nature and scope of business education in any high school should grow out of studies to determine the training needs of the pupils and of the community. A few generalizations and over-all suggestions are given, however, to guide the business teacher, the department head, or the principal in building a course of study in business education for a given situation.

The fact that a school is small, with inadequate equipment and with only one or two business teachers, does not justify its doing a poor job in business education. The small school cannot offer as varied and differentiated a program as the large school, but whatever the small school attempts in business training, it should do well. There can be no justification of a smattering, for example, in typewriting, shorthand, and bookkeeping. If a small rural high school is justified in training stenographers, it is justified only in training stenographers who will be well qualified for initial employment and who will be able to make progress in their chosen occupation. Any other standard would be unfair to the youth to whom the training was offered.

Vocational business training should be offered so as to be completed as nearly as possible at the time that the trainee will be employed. Ordinarily, therefore, training for stenography, bookkeeping, retailing, and other vocational pursuits should be offered in the junior and senior years of high school. Applying this principle of completing the training just before employment, it would follow that training for jobs for which people of high school graduation age are not employable should be postponed to the post-secondary school.

The Minimum Offering. If a choice must be made between various courses and curriculums, preference should be given to the training that meets the needs of all students over that which meets the needs of part of the students. A junior high school course in introduction to business designed to contribute to economic literacy and to competence in managing personal and family business affairs should be required of all secondary pupils just as courses in English, civics, and health are required, and for reasons equally defensible. This nonvocational course in business education, which necessarily will be elementary in nature, can well be offered in the first year (ninth grade) of high school. It will offer indispensable information for the dropouts, provide a foundation on which a more advanced course can be offered in the junior or senior year, and serve in a measure as an exploratory and guidance course for all pupils. This last-named purpose, however, is not the principal reason for requiring such a course. This first course in general business training will deal with those business activities and problems common to most normal individuals and will emphasize those business activities and problems that may be peculiar to farm youth and their families. This introductory course is known by a variety of names. Junior business training, elementary business training, introductory business training, and elements of business training are some of the titles under which this course is listed. Because of the nature and level of its subject matter, it can be taken by both first- and second-year (ninth- and tenth-grade) pupils, an arrangement highly desirable in the small high school where scheduling of classes is a difficult problem.

The advanced course in general business training should be offered in the senior year, although it may be taken by both juniors and seniors. It will deal with the more advanced phases of the subject matter taught in the introductory course and will introduce new material that is in keeping with the educational and age level of juniors and seniors. It will partake of the nature of a problem course and, as such, is keyed specifically to the needs of the students and the community. This advanced course is variously called advanced general business, consumer economic problems, or consumer business problems. It is not unlike a senior course frequently called "problems of American democracy" except that it deals almost exclusively with business problems.

These two courses—elementary business training and advanced general business training—represent the minimum offering in nonvocational business education for any high school, however small. To the two courses may be added other business courses that have general-education values that are exceedingly worth while. Such courses as consumer business education, business economics, elementary business organization and management, economic geography, and business law are being taught in the business departments of many of the larger high schools.

Sequence of Courses. Some business courses must be taken in sequence. The second year of bookkeeping, which if offered will be vocational in purpose, will follow the first-year introductory course. At least one semester of typewriting should precede the study of shorthand in order to enable the teacher to integrate typing and shorthand and to begin transcription early in the shorthand course. Typewriting, therefore, is generally offered in the second year (tenth grade) of high school followed by the study of shorthand in the junior year (eleventh grade) by those who are pursuing the stenographic curriculum. It is also desirable to offer typewriting early in the high school program for those who will take it for personal use. It then becomes a useful skill which a pupil may use during the remainder of his high school course to prepare reports and themes and to type various papers required in other subjects. The study of at least one year each of typewriting and shorthand should precede any course in stenographic office practice.

A year of typewriting should precede the study of general clerical training, a course designed primarily for the preparation of general office workers of a nonbookkeeping and nonstenographic nature. Most surveys of employment opportunities and many follow-up studies have shown that the number of general clerical workers was greatly in excess of the number of stenographers and bookkeepers combined.

At least a semester course in the principles of selling should precede the vocational course in retailing or merchandising. Likewise, some training in selling and retailing should precede a work experience or a cooperative program in the distributive occupations, which usually is offered in the senior year. It is indispensable for a student to have at least one year each in typewriting, shorthand and transcription, and bookkeeping and/or general clerical training before entering upon a work-experience program in the office occupations. Other business subjects, both general and related vocational, may be alternated. For example, business law may be offered one year and be taken by both juniors and seniors. It may be omitted the next year and a course in elementary business organization and management offered to both juniors and seniors. The practice of alternating courses and combining grades is necessary in the small high school if a small teaching force is to be able to offer a more nearly adequate program in business education.

Work-experience Program. The advantages of a work-experience program from an educational standpoint are too well known to require an extended discussion. The very nature of the rural community lends itself to such a program for the boys taking vocational agriculture. The isolation of some rural communities and their remoteness from towns and cities make a work-experience program in business education more difficult to organize and to conduct effectively. Notwithstanding this, the limited teaching force and the inadequate instructional facilities found in many rural high schools make it doubly necessary to use the related resources of the community in the business education program. There are many part-time jobs in offices, stores, and service establishments for high school seniors in the adjacent small towns and nearby urban centers. Moreover, many of the activities of the school and the numerous social, civic, and business organizations within the rural community offer a variety of opportunities for the participation and contribution of high school students pursuing a business-education program.

Adult Business Training. It can be stated categorically that there is no area of adult education in which training is needed more than in business education. A knowledge of the practices followed and methods used by rural and small-town businesses, and of the widespread lack of understanding and skill on the part of farmers and farm families in managing their personal and family business affairs, will convince anyone of the validity of this statement.

The organization of adult business classes in a rural area does not necessarily present insurmountable problems. The writer is still enthusiastic about an adult extension class that was conducted in a village whose businesses catered to the rural population. The class of 15 persons came from the local filling stations, grocery stores, beauty parlor, drugstore, and general-merchandise store. With the exception of the general store whose clerks and owners attended, these were all one-man owned and operated businesses. The classes dealt with effective selling and public-relations methods. The instructional cost was financed from a combination of local, state, and Federal vocational funds. Once mutual confidence was established, this same group demanded and received additional classes of business training suited to their needs.

Another state board for vocational education is rendering a distinctive service to rural areas by employing itinerant teachers who take business training to both small-town and crossroads merchants. The instruction is given in small group discussions and a follow-up of individual merchants. These two examples out of many are given to indicate the possibilities and financial resources available for giving business training to owners and employees of small retail businesses in rural areas.

Short unit courses in budgeting, and in personal and family bookkeeping, farm cost accounting, business law, credit and borrowing problems of farmers, and cooperative marketing are other examples of the kind of training that will meet the personal and family needs of rural residents.

Local Advisory Committees. In building a business-education curriculum for in-school youth and in developing training programs for out-of-school youth and adults, the business department should seek the advice and assistance of representative individuals and groups in the community. When properly approached, informed, and cultivated, most businessmen, as well as the representatives of other key groups, will discuss sympathetically the problems and needs of the business department and will cooperate to the fullest extent possible in solving the problems and in meeting these needs. The first contacts with key individuals will of course be informal and exploratory. When the business teacher or the department head in the larger school becomes well acquainted, knows the situation, and is accepted, he should, with the advice and help of his principal, select the membership of the local advisory committees. There may be one committee to advise on the over-all problems of business education. There will undoubtedly be one or more special committees to deal with specific problems such as developing a training program for the local merchants. It should be said that the proper use of advisory committees will result in a great deal of mutual education, a better understanding of business education, a solution of some of the neglected problems, and a solid support for the business department in particular and the whole school in general.

Teachers of Business. This will not be a discussion on teacher certification requirements or preservice business-teacher-education programs, however much these two subjects need a frank consideration. It will deal with those factors to which the school superintendent, the principal, and primarily the business community must give consideration in getting and keeping competent business teachers.

If there is to be any difference in the qualifications of business teachers in small rural high schools and in large urban high schools, the former should be more broadly trained, more extensively experienced, and more versatile and resourceful. Moreover, the teacher should be so well paid that neither business nor the large urban high school can attract him from the rural area where there is such a great need, challenge, and opportunity.

Educational Preparation. It may be understandable that a large high school will tolerate a narrow subject-matter specialist. In the large business department the specialized teacher of typewriting, for example, may meet his five to six sections of typewriting daily, attend required departmental and faculty meetings, turn in the grades and required periodic reports, and regard his service to the community as completed. The same condition applies to other specialists in the department. It must be obvious that such narrow specialists could not function in the one- or two-teacher department in the small high school. Business teachers in small schools need to be adequately trained in several specialized subject areas and broadly trained in related fields.

One of the outstanding weaknesses of some business teachers in small high schools is that their technical training has been limited to typewriting, shorthand, and some bookkeeping. This kind of training, as important as it is, should be supplemented by courses in economics, business organization and management, business law, sociology, insurance, finance, and marketing. Among the economic courses the study of consumer economics and rural economics is very important, and among the marketing courses a study of cooperative marketing is especially important for the rural business teacher.

Among the professional education courses to be taken by the rural business teacher, one in the principles and philosophy of vocational education; one in the making of occupational surveys, follow-up studies, and job analyses; one in the techniques of individual inventory; and one in the techniques of counseling should be taken by all business teachers.

Business Experience. In the discussion of the determination of training needs and in the making of job analyses, the necessity for occupational competency acquired from business experience was stressed. In connection with both the preservice and in-service training of business teachers, it is equally important.

> Successful and consequential business experience is one of the most important qualifications of teachers, department heads, coordinators, and supervisors of business education. The "know what" and the "know how" of business training cannot be obtained from technical and professional training alone. Such training must be supplemented by wage-earning business experience in the occupation for which the training is being given. To maintain instructional standards based on job requirements, the teacher must have experienced these requirements through having satisfactorily performed the duties of the type of position for which training is being offered. Such experience, if reasonably current, provides first-hand knowledge not only of what should be taught but also of acceptable standards of performance.[1]

---

[1] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Business Experience for Business Teachers.* Vocational Division Bulletin No. 241. Washington, D.C., 1949, p. 1.

In-service Education. The removal of the educational deficiencies necessary for a well-rounded preparation in technical and professional preparation has already been pointed out as an important part of the in-service training of business teachers. Attendance at summer schools, the earning of additional credits, or even the securing of an additional degree is not the whole of in-service training. Moreover, it is not necessarily the most important part. The spending of a vacation in making an occupational survey, a follow-up study, or a job analysis is valuable from an in-service training standpoint and indispensable to the school in building a functional business education program. Such summer service should be compensated by the local board of education. At least the teacher should receive credit for certificate renewal or toward an increase in salary, when such studies are properly reported. Periodic summer employment in offices, stores, or other businesses is necessary to keep the business teacher's knowledges and skills current. For such experiences the teacher should receive the same consideration in salary increases and other promotions as would be accorded him if he attended a summer school and obtained additional traditional credits.

The ideal and wholly defensible arrangement would be for the business teacher to be employed and paid for eleven months in the year. During the months when the high school was not in regular session, he could with profit to the school and community engage in the activities already discussed. In addition he could develop course outlines and instructional materials, participate in workshops, work with local business groups, organizations, and individual businesses, and otherwise follow up systematically both the training and the trainees of the regular school year.

It is ardently hoped that both the taxpayer and the school administrator will recognize that the qualifications of a business teacher must be much higher and broader than formerly thought and that his duties are much more extensive than teaching a class and reporting grades. Finally, it is hoped that provisions will be made in the daily schedule of the business teacher, and arrangements made during the summer, for these other equally important duties with comparable compensation.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Compare the certification requirements for a secondary school business teacher in your state with what you think they should be in terms of (*a*) general education, (*b*) business training, (*c*) education courses, and (*d*) business experiences. List the deficiencies, if any, in the certification requirements.

2. Make a study of objectives of business education in a selected rural high school. A statement of the objectives may be secured from the principal or the head business teacher. Evaluate these objectives in terms of (*a*) their adequacy, (*b*) their completeness, (*c*) their definiteness, (*d*) the distinction between vocational and general edu-

cation objectives, and (*e*) the extent to which the objectives are based on the needs of the school service area (community).

3. Work out in detail plans for conducting a follow-up study of high school dropouts and graduates. If possible, conduct such a study for a rural high school and prepare recommendations for the business-education program based upon the findings.

4. With the cooperation of selected farmers, farm wives, or farm youth, make an analysis of their business activities. Such an analysis will reveal what they do in terms of such activities as using credit and borrowing money, making purchases, entering into various contractual relations, making investments, dealing with banks and other financial institutions, selling what they produce or their services, paying taxes, keeping records (bookkeeping), preparing business reports, and choosing various kinds of insurance. Prepare a list of the topics (course outline) that you would include in a high school course in "introduction to business" or "elementary business training" to meet the training needs as revealed by this activity analysis.

5. Make a shopping survey of several stores in a rural town. Observe carefully the practices, manners, and attitude of the salespeople. How do they approach the customer? Are they courteous in manner and interested in meeting the customer's need? Do they know their merchandise? Do they meet customer objections intelligently? Do they demonstrate or show their merchandise effectively? Do they suggest other, different, or additional merchandise in which the customer might be interested? Do they inspire confidence and create good will? Would you return to these stores and these salespersons for your future needs? In the light of your answers to these and other questions, prepare a statement covering the nature and scope of an adult extension course that you would recommend for the salespeople that you observed.

6. Prepare a list of the nonteaching activities in which a business teacher should engage. What services other than teaching in-school youth should he render to the school and to the community?

7. From the information that may be secured from census reports and the offices of the public employment service, prepare a table of the number employed in the various business occupations in a given geographical area. Ascertain which of the business occupations are open to high school graduates.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Business Education and the Consumer. Proceedings of the University of Chicago Conference on Business Education. Monograph 24. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1934.

Endicott, Frank S. *The Guidance and Counseling of Business Education Students.* Fifth Annual Delta Pi Epsilon Lecture. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1947.

Freeman, M. Herbert. *Basic Business Education for Everyday Living.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1951.

Gavian, Ruth Millicent Wood. *Education for Economic Competence.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942.

Lyon, Leverett S. *Education for Business.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

Magee, Elizabeth Mary. *A Business Education Program for a Small Rural High School.* Unpublished Master's Thesis. Cincinnati, Ohio: Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, 1948.

Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. *Determining Occupational Training Needs through Occupational Surveys and Follow-up Studies.* Vocational Education Bulletin No. 291. Lansing, 1948.

Missouri State Department of Education, *Cooperative Occupational Education for Life Adjustment*, Publication No. 79. Jefferson City, 1951.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association. *Consumer Education in Your School.* Washington, D.C., 1947.

———. *The Relation of Business Education to Consumer Education.* Washington, D.C., 1945.

National Business Teachers Association and Eastern Business Teachers Association. *General Business Education.* Joint Yearbook, 1949. New York: New York University Bookstore.

Nichols, Frederick G. *Commercial Education in the High School.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1933.

Shipley, Clifford B. *A Handbook for Business Education in the Small High School.* Monograph 69. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1948.

Tonne, Herbert A. *Principles of Business Education.* New York: Gregg Publishing Company, 1947.

U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead.* Vocational Division Bulletin No. 234. Washington, D.C., 1945, pp. 159–189.

CHAPTER 13

EDUCATION FOR INDUSTRY

This chapter deals with industrial education for rural youth. The initial portion discusses the various levels of industrial occupations, and how workers in these occupational levels get their training, in school and in industry itself. Attention is then directed to the ways in which youth of rural communities prepare themselves for industrial life. Then follows a discussion of the labor market which is open to rural youth, and some of the special problems involved. Ways in which the rural schools can meet some of the needs for industrial education, including important steps in the development of programs, comprise the remainder of the chapter.

Industrial Occupations and How Workers Get Their Training. Modern industry is carried on by workers in thousands of different kinds of jobs. Some of these jobs require only a few hours of training. Others demand years of organized instruction. It is the purpose of this section to discuss briefly the commonly recognized groups of jobs and how workers receive the training needed for satisfactory performance. The highly technical occupations requiring college engineering training will be omitted.

Although industrial occupations cannot be classified into distinct groups each different entirely from the others, certain broad groupings help to clarify the total picture. There are many occupations in industry which require relatively narrow training. Most of these occupations can be mastered in a few hours or days. These are often called "semiskilled jobs" or "single-skill jobs." Many operators of special machines, workers on assembly lines, routine inspectors, and the like, are of this type. Such workers get their training on the job, frequently by unorganized instruction from a supervisor or fellow worker. In the larger plants, this training may be provided on an organized basis by a supervisor who has had some training in the instruction process.

Just above this large group of occupations of semiskilled type are occupations which require several weeks or even months of training before competency is attained. These jobs may require a little information of technical type related to the jobs, but the amount is not extensive. These occupations also are usually learned through on-the-job training. In some cases vestibule schools are used, where the new employees are given several weeks of special training in a separate section of the factory set up for instructional purposes.

Above this level are the skilled trades, requiring several years of training before journeyman status is attained. Such training is usually provided through apprenticeship, in which the worker performs a series of graded operations and jobs covering the spread of a whole trade. The training program is usually based upon a careful analysis of the trade, from which a course of study or training is developed. The apprentice works alongside the journeyman, performing various operations until he develops competency. After a period of two to seven years (usually four) he completes his apprenticeship and becomes a journeyman. His apprentice training program usually includes approximately 150 hours per year in classroom study of the mathematics, drawing, science, and other subjects directly relating to his field. This related instruction is frequently provided by the public vocational education program of the community.

Preemployment preparation for the skilled trades is commonly provided in full-time vocational schools, sometimes followed by apprenticeship. In many cases some credit is given toward the apprenticeship requirements for the work done in the full-time vocational school. In some occupational fields, especially where there is little of organized apprenticeship, the graduate of the full-time school goes directly into industry without further apprenticeship. He picks up on the job the additional learning he needs, or gets it through evening classes.

The kinds of schools which provide preparation for the skilled trades may be public or private, and may be on the high school, the junior college, or the adult level. The adult schools usually do not set up formal educational entrance requirements, such as high school graduation, but enroll any person who can profit by the instruction. The private schools may be of the proprietary (profit-making) type, or they may be endowed institutions which provide instruction at low tuition rates. In the adult private schools the curriculum is usually restricted to the teaching of the necessary skills of the trade together with such related science, mathematics, etc., as are absolutely essential to performance on the job.

The public vocational schools usually include considerable general education along with the vocational subjects. The vocational high school curriculum commonly provides that one-quarter or more of the total time be given over to subjects of general education character, and one-half of the time to shop work. Related technical subjects occupy approximately one-quarter of the school day. Such schools are eligible for Federal subsidy from the Smith-Hughes and the George-Barden Acts, if they meet special conditions.

Another broad grouping of industrial occupations includes workers commonly known as technicians. They occupy a field between the skilled trades and the professional engineering occupations. Their work requires much more of applied science, mathematics, and drawing than is needed for the skilled trades. Typical technician occupations are technical supervision, precision inspection, tool design, and estimating. Many technicians get their training on the job, supplemented by evening study in technical courses. Others prepare for these occupations through study in technical high schools or technical institutes. The latter type of institution is post-high school in character, with curriculums usually two years in length. Many of these institutes are privately operated. Recently there has developed a considerable amount of interest in public institutions in this field, especially those of post-high school type.

Preparation for certain types of industrial occupations is frequently provided through programs of the "cooperative" type, in which the student spends approximately half his time in school and the other half in industry, working on a job. Such programs are found in small communities as well as in large cities.

The administrative patterns of the various public institutions which provide industrial education for the skilled trades differ greatly. A considerable portion of these institutions takes the form of vocational high schools, operated by city boards of education. Some are schools operated directly by the state, as in Connecticut. Some are organized as county vocational programs, as in certain counties of New Jersey. In some states, such as Virginia and Georgia, the state operates "area" schools serving certain districts of the state. Many junior colleges include programs of training for the skilled trades, as in California and Texas.

The age and grade level at which full-time programs of preparation for the skilled trades are offered varies considerably. Some school programs begin vocational preparation in the ninth grade. Others defer the starting of the vocational preparation until the tenth, eleventh, or twelfth year. There appears to be a definite trend toward placing this training on the higher age and grade levels. In many states a considerable portion of the total program is now in adult schools and in the junior college. Several factors have influenced this change. The increasing technological content of many industrial occupations, and the higher degree of responsibility needed, call for greater maturity than that of youth just out of high school. Labor legislation has had some influence. The initial hiring age for youth is thus increasing, and many large industries now will not hire young people under twenty years of age.

There are certain essential requirements for the operation of effective vocational schools. There must be a sufficient number of students to warrant the establishment of each curriculum. The absorbing power of the labor market served by the school must be sufficiently great to provide employment for the graduates. Close relationships must be maintained between the school and the employing industries, including both management and organized labor. The plant and equipment must be adequate, and this usually requires considerable capital outlay. Properly qualified teachers and administrators—with adequate industrial experience—are necessary. The school administration must recognize the place and importance of industrial training in the total educational picture. It is obvious that these factors necessitate school administrative districts of reasonably large size and population. If the geographic spread of the area served is large, transportation becomes an important element. Housing for students may also be necessary.

How Rural Youth Now Prepare for Industrial Employment. Some rural youth find opportunity for preparing themselves for industrial occupations through educational offerings in their local communities. Some travel considerable distances daily to attend vocational schools serving several local communities. Some have to leave home and attend school in another community. Some get an initial foothold in industry in an unskilled or semiskilled job, and learn what is needed through on-the-job training or evening instruction.

In most rural communities the opportunities for preemployment preparation for industrial occupations are very limited. If the local school has a comprehensive industrial-arts program, some basic instruction in tool processes may be obtained. But industrial-arts programs are designed as aspects of general education, in contrast with specific occupational preparation, and the vocational learnings are usually quite limited. Especially is this true in the smaller schools, where the industrial-arts program is limited to one school shop with a narrow range of activities.

Perhaps the most promising type of vocational preparation for the industrial occupations found in the schools of the smaller communities is the diversified occupations cooperative part-time program. In the Southern and the Midwestern states it has achieved much recognition. This type of program can be operated in almost any community in which the persons in charge of industrial establishments are willing to cooperate with the schools. The student spends half his time in school—usually the morning or afternoon of each school day—and the other half working on a job. The training opportunities are thus limited to the kinds of jobs that are found in the local community. They may include such jobs as auto repair, radio service, meat cutting, and some types of work in small factories. This type of program has great possibilities in the commercial and retail selling fields, perhaps more so than in industrial occupations.

Many rural youth find opportunity for vocational industrial training in schools located within commuting distance. These may be city schools with which the local district has a contract for such specialized instruction, or schools operated jointly by a group of districts, or by a county or state. The rural youth population thus served is naturally restricted to those who are fortunate enough to be near the kind of school they desire. The vocational-technical schools of Connecticut, administered by the state, are open to any youth in the state. The county programs in New Jersey—such as those of Essex, Middlesex, and Camden counties—provide for reasonable numbers of rural youth, although the counties operating such programs are largely urban in character. The vocational industrial programs of the junior colleges in Texas, California, and other states have many rural students who commute daily.

A rural vocational program of special interest is that operated by the Vocational Education and Extension Board of Rockland County, New York. The county has no cities, and the industrial education is provided through classes located in several small communities. Auto mechanics, for example, is offered in one community; electrical or carpentry work in another. Students travel from nearby communities to attend these classes. In some cases the instructors serve in more than one school. The program is supervised from the county board headquarters in New City.

Large numbers of rural youth have to leave home to get specialized vocational industrial training. The range of interests and abilities of rural youth vary as greatly as those of urban communities. Many occupations are so limited in total opportunities for employment that it is not economical to provide specialized training in more than a few communities. For example, the number of persons employed in watch repair would warrant very few such schools, possibly only one or two in a whole state. Other occupations such as auto repair are found in every community. Between these extremes are many other occupations. If the type of training program desired by the young person happens to be offered in his community, he is fortunate. If not, he has to leave home to get the training needed. And this may involve tuition fees in a private institution as well as living expenses.

Public-education authorities are becoming increasingly conscious of the problems involved, and many states have established area or statewide schools for vocational industrial and technical training. The New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Sciences at Utica, the North Dakota State School of Science at Wahpeton,[1] the Okmulgee Branch of

---

[1] For description of the North Dakota State School of Science, see *Technical Education News*, Vol. VII, No. 2, December, 1947.

Oklahoma A. and M. College, and the North Georgia Trade and Vocational School at Clarkesville are examples of such trade and technical schools. Some students at these institutions live at home, but many come from other communities and find living accommodations at the school or nearby.

Within industry itself is the training ground for large numbers of rural youth. Employers frequently like to hire young people from rural communities and provide for them the necessary on-the-job training. Usually the jobs are of semiskilled types, with some opportunity for advancement to higher paid jobs for those who prepare themselves through evening classes in the plant or in the vocational schools of the community in which the plant is located. Some rural youth find opportunity for entering apprenticeship training.

Rural Youth and the Industrial-labor Market. Programs of industrial education grow out of the needs of industry for trained workers. The types of curriculum offerings, the numbers of youth to be trained for the various occupational fields, and the administrative patterns of the programs all are based upon the absorbing power of the labor market. The rural area as well as the urban one must consider this factor in developing its industrial-education offerings.

The labor market of an educational institution comprises the area in which the product of that institution finds jobs. An engineering college sends its graduates to the far corners of the nation. A technical institute usually finds its job markets nearer home, but still considerably beyond the confines of the community in which it is located. A vocational high school often places most of its graduates in the local community.

The scope of the labor market with which the rural industrial-education program will need to be concerned will naturally depend upon the nature and extent of the program. If it is operated by a local district, the offerings will logically be confined to those occupational fields in the community and adjacent areas which are large enough to absorb the young people who complete the training. In most rural communities the number of new workers employed each year in industrial occupations is very limited. The jobs are usually scattered among several occupations. If the program is operated by an administrative unit larger than the local community—such as a group of districts, possibly including a small city—the labor market widens accordingly.

But the labor market for rural youth has aspects which go beyond the confines of the local geographic area. There are not enough new jobs each year in rural areas for the numbers of young persons seeking them. Large numbers of these youth must migrate to the cities to find employment. They may go as untrained workers. Or they may first get specialized training in some school either within or outside of their local community. A few may return to rural areas to serve in occupations which demand specialized training. Most of these youth will find jobs in the cities.

Within the rural areas the numbers of industrial jobs are gradually increasing. The field of building construction requires the services of limited numbers of workers. Rural electrification has grown rapidly in recent years, involving some workers in the construction of electric lines and the wiring of buildings. More significant, perhaps, are the new jobs resulting from the introduction of electric power in these areas, such as the installation and maintenance of automatic heating systems, refrigeration equipment, radios, television sets, and other electrical equipment. The servicing of automobiles provides many jobs. The rapid expansion of the use of power-driven agricultural machinery has called for trained maintenance mechanics. Some of these occupations require a combination of technical and sales ability.

Many small communities have small manufacturing plants giving employment to both men and women. As the size of industrial plants in the large cities has increased, the problems of management have grown. Today a great deal of attention is being given in industry to human-relations factors. The handling of these problems is often more difficult with plants of large size than with small organizations where the top management is able to get really acquainted with the workers. Out of this problem appears to be developing a tendency toward decentralization of large industry, of expanding through the development of small plants in small communities. Munsingwear, Inc., of Minneapolis, for example, has recently developed new manufacturing units in nine small communities scattered through Minnesota and the adjacent area in Wisconsin.[1] These small plants recruit most of their workers from the local communities. In many cases the plant provides the training needed for most of the workers. In some plants the need for specially trained skilled workers may provide opportunity for the public schools to offer this needed training.

Ways to Meet the Needs of Rural Youth for Industrial Education. The youth of the rural community are much like those of urban centers with respect to their differences in abilities, their interests in various types of occupations, and the levels of industrial life which they will eventually achieve. Many will find work in the single-skill repetitive processes of large-scale industry. Reasonable numbers will find satisfactions in the skilled occupations. Some will prepare themselves for the technician level of jobs. A smaller number will go on to engineering college.

As indicated earlier, some of the occupations found within rural communities require training which is beyond the resources of the local communities to provide. To secure satisfactory training for such occupations, youth will have to leave home, usually after the completion of high school. This is usually the case with occupations of technician and engineering character. Some of the skilled occupations lend themselves to apprentice training within the community. For other skilled occupations it may be more feasible for the youth to get some preemployment training in a special school outside the community. Much of the training for semiskilled jobs will come through on-the-job training, provided by the employer either on an organized basis or through the absorption process of picking it up on the job.

---

[1] See "When Industry Moves to the Country." *Factory Organization and Management,* Vol. 106, No. 8, August, 1948.

Perhaps half the rural youth will have to find employment in urban centers. Some of these centers may be within commuting distance of certain rural areas. Today many workers travel considerable distances from home to work. Most of the jobs will require the worker to move to the urban center. What is the responsibility of the rural community for the industrial education of those who leave home, as well as for those who remain in the community? Many practical considerations have to be faced.

For many types of industrial education no single rural community has enough youth interested in a specific industrial occupation to warrant setting up the necessary vocational training, when such training can be most efficiently done in a full-time vocational school. This is especially true when the training requires extensive equipment and specially trained instructors, as is true with some skilled occupations and with the technician fields. In certain fields the numbers of youth interested, and the total number of occupational opportunities, are too small to warrant the establishment of a vocational school on even a small regional basis. In such cases perhaps a school serving a whole state, or a considerable portion of it, is the answer.

In some other cases, it may be feasible to establish intermediate district schools serving a relatively smaller geographical area. If the area is small enough so that rural students can commute to the school, the local school district will have some stake in the program through cooperative effort with other districts, or through the establishment of administrative districts of larger size. Such districts will frequently include urban as well as rural areas. The industrial-training programs of such districts will usually reflect the dominant industrial occupations in the area, those which have a sufficient number of employed workers to warrant special educational offerings. Such programs might include auto repair, machine-shop practice, certain of the building trades, electrical work, radio repair, and the like.

Vocational industrial schools of the intermediate-district type may be on the high school or the post-high school level. In some sections of the country, notably California, much of the vocational industrial work in public school programs is found in the junior colleges. In other sections, such as the Northeastern states, the present pattern is predominantly that of the high school level, especially for offerings preparing for skilled trades occupations.

The development of area vocational programs is not solely a problem of the rural community. It involves the smaller urban centers as well. Much experience has been accumulated over the years in the development of industrial-education programs in the cities, and it appears unnecessary to recount here the practices employed in the development and operation of such programs. The reader is referred to the many books and other publications concerning these programs in the cities.[1]

In exploring the possibilities of providing vocational industrial education within the small community itself, many educational administrators have a tendency to think of the industrial-arts program as providing the answer to their problem. The objectives of industrial-arts education are of general education character, not vocational education. Such programs aim to acquaint students with some of the industrial aspects of society, to develop elementary skills in the use of hand and machine tools in the working of wood and metal, to arouse interest in craft work as hobbies, to provide some understanding of repairs for the home, and the like. They are designed to be useful to all citizens without respect to occupation. Good industrial-arts programs provide some useful prevocational education, some skills and understandings which may carry over into vocational life, some exploratory activities which enable students to determine whether they have liking or aptitude for certain tool processes. But they must not be confused with vocational education, which is specialized education for definite occupational fields.

Every community needs a program of industrial arts. If the school is of sufficient size, one or more school shops should be provided. In the very small communities perhaps conditions might be such that mobile units, serving several schools, could be used. This plan appears to be meeting with success in San Diego County, California.

An important type of program for the education of young workers for the skilled trades is apprentice training.[2] This field has developed rapidly during recent years under the impetus of the National Apprentice Training Service of the United States Department of Labor, working in cooperation with state apprentice training councils. The responsibility for apprentice training lies mainly in the hands of the employer and the unions. But the local school system is often expected to provide evening classes for apprentices, covering the related study needed in connection with the practical work of the apprentice on the job.

---

[1] See, for example, the following: Kahler, Alfred, and Hamburger, Ernest. *Education for an Industrial Age*. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1948, Chaps. III–VII. Prosser, Charles A., and Quigley, Thomas H. *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, rev. ed. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949, Chaps. X–XIII.

[2] See Bergevin, Paul. *Industrial Apprenticeship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947.

Cooperative Diversified Occupations Program. One of the best ways of providing the education of young persons for many of the industrial occupations which are found in rural communities is the diversified occupations cooperative part-time program. This is commonly referred to as the "D.O." program. It is a plan whereby selected students, in the upper years of the high school, work in industrial establishments for half of each school day and attend school the other half of the day. Usually one period per day of school time is given to "coordination," or study related to the occupation the student is pursuing.

Occupations which have highly technical content, requiring a considerable time for mastery, and those occupations which many rural youth will enter but which will require them to leave the community to find employment are usually not suited to the diversified occupations program. But for the large numbers of industrial occupations (and commercial occupations as well) which are found in these communities, the "D.O." program has important opportunities for industrial education. The scope of the program in a local community is limited only by the occupations found in the community and by the willingness of employers to cooperate.

The feasibility of organizing such programs is indicated by the relatively small additions needed beyond the ordinary facilities of the high school. No shop facilities are required, the school curriculum offerings are changed very little, and the additional personnel needed is limited. This type of program has found wide acceptance in the small communities of the South and the Midwest, and appears to be spreading to other sections.

Practical considerations, such as labor legislation and the usefulness of the student-learner to the employer, limit the program to the junior and senior years of the high school. Many programs include only seniors. The occupations included are those which have a reasonable training content, not those which can be learned in a few days of on-the-job training. The material covered in the coordination or related study aspect of the program includes such common factors of all occupations as work habits, getting along with fellow workers, safety practices, and the like, together with such special instruction related to each occupation as is feasible.

An essential element in this type of program is the coordinator, who visits the student-learners at their work jobs, helps them in their adjustments to their work situations, conducts the related study classes, and in general serves as a liaison between the school and the employer.

Perhaps the first step in developing a "D.O." program is a general survey of the community to determine the occupations in the area which lend themselves to this type of program, the approximate number of student-learners for whom work-training opportunities could be provided, and the number of students who would be interested. It is advisable to check both the youth supply and the occupational learning situations—one depends on the other. If the initial survey looks promising, a qualified coordinator specially trained for the job should be secured. Frequently a local industrial-arts teacher who has had special preparation for diversified occupations work can be utilized.

Selling the program to the community is a most important step. In accomplishing this, industrial and business leaders are usually brought together in a meeting where the whole problem of industrial education for the community can be discussed, and the "D.O." program explained in detail. Out of such a meeting should come the formation of an advisory committee of industrial and business leaders to assist the school authorities in developing and carrying on the program. If organized labor is represented in the community, it should be included in the advisory committee.

A careful survey of the occupations in the community, with the guidance and assistance of the advisory committee, is an important next step. This is usually done by the coordinator, who studies these occupations as to their desirability for cooperative work, and the possibility of securing cooperation from the employers. This takes considerable time and effort. While this is under way, a similar survey of students may be taking place, looking into the possible group which may be interested in such a program. The type of student enrolled in such a program—especially his adaptability to work situations—will have considerable influence on its success.

Getting the program actually under way involves the development of working schedules so that the student-learner gets an all-round work experience; and the setting up of working agreements between individual students, employers, school, and parents. Plans will need to be developed for giving the related instruction, including the analysis of the content to be learned by each student-learner, and the development of instructional materials which will be needed for special directed study in specific occupational fields as well as the general material which is useful to all student-learners.

Care will need to be taken to secure the cooperation of organized labor in occupational fields so represented in the community, to make sure that pay rates for student-learners are in keeping with labor laws, that students are not exploited in work situations, and that the related study is appropriate. In dealing with labor and other groups the effectiveness of the coordinator is of primary importance.

The costs of diversified occupations programs which must be borne by the local community are not large. Federal aid is available for the subsidy of salaries of coordinators in approved programs.

In his book which deals exclusively with diversified occupations programs, Rakestraw provides an extensive portrayal of this type of industrial-education program.[1] The reader is referred to this book for many details not possible to include here.

Although it is usually impracticable for the small community to provide definite vocational training for specific occupations through full-time day-school programs, there is real opportunity for the school to develop a program of basic skills and knowledge underlying groups of industrial occupations. If one were to make a careful analysis of the skills and knowledge needed in a considerable number of occupations, he would find much which is common to several of them. Many hand tools are used in different occupations, and their use is not limited to single types of jobs. Screwdrivers, pliers, wrenches, twist drills, etc., are used in many different occupations. Similarly there are basic principles of machine operation—care of machines, oiling, feeding of stock into machines, machine control through levers, etc.—that are common to a great many machines. Careful analysis of these items would bring to light many common items.

In addition to the hand tools and machine principles mentioned above, one finds many common factors in occupations with respect to applied mathematics, reading of drawings, and basic principles of applied science.

In our schools at present we find most of our day-school vocational industrial programs geared to the needs of narrow, specific occupations. We also find large numbers of industrial-arts programs aimed at general education rather than vocational objectives. These programs have definite places in our total school offerings. But they do not meet the needs of large numbers of young persons who will find jobs in greatly varied occupations. There appears to be a real place for a clear-cut program of preemployment training, in full-time public schools, which provides basic instruction in the skills and knowledge underlying groups of industrial occupations.

---

[1] Rakestraw, C. E., *Training High School Youth for Employment.* Chicago: American Technical Society, 1948.

One such program might deal with the metalworking field as a whole. Such a program might well include the use of a great variety of hand tools for the working of metals, the operation of basic metalworking machines, the reading of drawings, basic science applied to the metal field, and applied mathematics. Such a program would differ from one which prepares specifically for machine-shop practice, for example, by including tasks involving sheet metal, soldering, welding, repair of machines of various types, and the like. It would not turn out a person whose abilities were limited to the work of the machine shop, but would provide basic fundamentals usable in a variety of metalworking occupations. Specific training would then follow through apprenticeship or on-the-job training in industry.

This kind of program would differ from industrial arts in that the objective would be definitely vocational in character—but limited to the basic fundamentals. It would be similar to some aspects of industrial arts, such as the hand and machine tools found in a general metal shop. But the shop activities would grow out of analyses of the skills and knowledge needed for work life, the tolerances required, and approved ways of tool use in industry. In addition to the shop work the program would include a considerable amount of study of the reading of drawings, mechanical drafting, basic science applied to metal work and machines, and applied mathematics. This differs considerably from the usual industrial-arts programs.

Throughout the country one finds programs which aim somewhat in the direction herein outlined. The technical high school has some of the elements, but geared to a higher level of industrial occupations. But as yet little has been done in setting up such basic industrial programs for that great mass of workers who might be broadly classified as "mechanics." Here lies a field for pioneering effort.

For the many rural youth who need the kind of industrial or technical education which can be offered effectively only in highly specialized schools and for which they will have to leave home to get the needed instruction, the rural community has a definite obligation. Many capable young people do not have the economic means to pay tuition fees and living expenses. It seems undemocratic for the rural community to neglect entirely the needs of these youth. If the community believes in providing educational opportunity for all youth, it must recognize that identity of opportunity is not equality of opportunity. Some means must be found for financial assistance for such youth who must leave home for appropriate training. This is one of the large problems that lie ahead.

The qualifications presented by young persons when they apply for work in industry include general qualities as well as specialized skills and knowledge. The employer is often interested in the specialized abilities, but usually he is more interested in some of the general qualities. He wants a person who can get along with his fellow workers, who knows how to take orders and to carry them out. He wants a person who works safely, and one who takes care of tools and equipment. He wants a worker who gets satisfactions out of the kind of work he will undertake.

These general qualities—applicable to all kinds and levels of jobs—are very important. To the extent that the school can develop such qualities in the young people it turns out, it will go a considerable distance in providing what is desired by industry. The development of these work habits can be accomplished best through some sort of work experience, such as the "D.O." program, or through work experience in school shops which maintain working conditions similar to those found in industry. But if these qualities are to be developed there must be definite attention given to them as educational objectives. They do not come by mere chance.

Success in any industrial pursuit depends considerably upon the interest of the person in his job. Youth who find work outside their main interests are usually not happy or successful. If the school is to help youth into the right sort of jobs, much more attention must be given to vocational guidance. Many schools now give attention to guidance problems, especially the guidance of students to higher educational institutions. But too many of these schools, especially in the rural areas, lack adequate attention to the problems of vocation.

Adequate vocational guidance requires much more than wishful thinking about the problem. It demands trained guidance personnel. It requires adequate provision for guidance in the school schedule. Guidance for industrial occupations demands counselors who know industry—who have had experience in the industrial field and know the "feel" of industry as well as the facts one learns from textbooks.

Rural youth need adequate vocational guidance with respect to the industrial occupations. The effective rural school will make adequate provision for giving students opportunity to learn what industry requires in its jobs, and the various ways young people can prepare themselves for these jobs. It will provide facilities for students to appraise their abilities, and to make wise choices of vocational life. The adequate guidance program will acquaint youth with opportunities for upgrading themselves after they have entered employment. It will help them to learn that if they have ability and ambition they should not be satisfied with any job that happens to be open but should choose carefully among available starting jobs, selecting one which has an outlet toward the kind of occupation which will utilize their potential abilities.

Vocational guidance is not vocational education. But it is a very necessary prerequisite to effective vocational instruction.

Steps in the Development of an Industrial-education Program for Rural Youth. The administrator of a program of rural education faces a big task when he plans to provide adequate vocational industrial education for the youth of the territory he serves. In the first place he must realize that he cannot provide all the kinds and levels of industrial training needed by all the youth. The needs of many youth will be so specialized that there is no possibility of providing everything needed. This is impossible even in the largest cities. But some things are possible even in small communities, and the educational administrator needs to look at what may be feasible for his school system.

Almost every small community could provide a program of diversified occupations training for high school young persons, both boys and girls. Forward-looking administrators might consider the development of basic general industrial training, at least on a limited basis. If the community has a reasonable number of apprentices—enough for a single class—there is opportunity for evening courses for these apprentices and for other employed persons who desire to upgrade themselves. Such an evening program would be very small as compared with the extensive offerings of the large cities. But it might be very valuable for those who need such opportunity for further study.

The administrator who is really concerned about the problem of industrial education will go further than his local community and will look into the possibility of uniting efforts with other districts to provide offerings not possible for a single school system. Some form of intermediate district organization may be the proper approach. Or he may join with others in stimulating the development of state-operated programs.

Whatever the pattern is that best suits the needs of the area, it will develop effectively only if certain conditions are met. Among these conditions are the following:

1. The program is based upon adequate surveys of the needs of youth and the needs of the labor market.
2. Effective cooperation is given by employers, labor, and the community generally.
3. The program is planned intelligently in the light of all pertinent factors and is implemented by adequate personnel and facilities.
4. Active, wholehearted effort is put forth by the school administrator and his staff.

Year by year the United States is becoming more of an industrialized nation. The growth of nonagricultural population continues. Rural youth supply a considerable share of the industrial workers of the nation. The part they play will be influenced by their opportunities for sound industrial education. The schools of the small communities can contribute much, if they have the will to do so.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Select a village of from 1,000 to 2,000 population in a rural area with which you are acquainted. Make a list of the different industrial occupations found in this community, with approximate numbers of workers in each occupation. Include all occupations which are not considered to be agricultural, commercial, or professional.

2. Outline what you would consider to be a sensible program of industrial education for the community studied in Problem 1 above.

3. Make a list of the labor laws of the Federal government and of your state which would have direct bearing upon a program of diversified occupations training, indicating the ways in which these laws apply.

4. Make a comparison of the problems faced in developing a program of industrial education for a rural area with those of a large city.

5. Compare the objectives and content of a typical industrial-arts program with those of a vocational high school program.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bergevin, Paul. *Industrial Apprenticeship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1947.

Kahler, Alfred, and Hamburger, Ernest. *Education for an Industrial Age*. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Press, 1948.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Vocational Education*. Forty-second Yearbook. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1943, Part I.

Prosser, Charles A., and Quigley, Thomas H. *Vocational Education in a Democracy*, rev. ed. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1949.

Rakestraw, C. E. *Training High School Youth for Employment*. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1948.

CHAPTER 14

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL IN RURAL AREAS

The educational activities outside the school in rural areas, while many in number, can be logically grouped under three main headings: (1) the community and its organizations, (2) the Cooperative Extension Service, and (3) the rural library.

Most of the programs that have meant most to rural America have been at the community level. They have had their origin in the mobilization of the people of communities working together to find solutions to their own problems. This method of work is the fundamental basis of all the most worth-while programs of adult education.

In this chapter the philosophy of community adult education and some illustrations of its operation are presented.

Community Adult-education Emphasis. The role of community organization in out-of-school education has had an interesting history during the past thirty years. For a brief period following the First World War, numerous efforts were made to direct attention to community organization as a means of getting people to work cooperatively on their mutual problems. The Agricultural Extension Service in West Virginia directed much of its efforts toward community organization. This institution published two significant bulletins on community organization, *Focusing on the Country Community*[1] and *Education through Organized Community Activities.*[2]

Community organization specialists were added to extension in Missouri, Illinois, Virginia, New York, Wisconsin, and Louisiana. For a brief time the YMCA and the Red Cross vigorously promoted adult education through community organization. One of the most significant developments during the early 1930's was the recognition by both educational leaders and rural sociologists that school district reorganization and school consolidations were directly related to community organization. For example, legislation in New York placed major emphasis on the community concept of school district organization in providing for rural central districts that have now become the pattern of rural school organization in that state.

---

[1] Frame, Nat T. *Focusing on the Country Community.* Circular No. 211. Morgantown: Extension Department, College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, July, 1918.

[2] Rapking, A. H. *Education through Organized Community Activities.* Circular No. 307. Morgantown: College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, and the U.S. Department of Agriculture Cooperating, June, 1934.

The 1930's, however, did not produce too much development in the community concept of problem solving. As a result of depression conditions, numerous Federal agencies were put into operation. Problems that had formerly been matters of local concern became matters of concern and financial support for Federal agencies. There was too little coordination of the work of separate agencies and too little orientation to local problems and resources for solving them.

Cooperative Land-use Planning. In the late 1930's and the early 1940's, the Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with the land-grant colleges and universities, sponsored what promised to become a very significant movement in adult education: Cooperative Land-use Planning. This program was a means of bringing rural people together voluntarily to identify their problems and appraise their resources. The emphasis was on the assumption of leadership by lay people in the respective communities. The professional personnel from the Federal and state agencies served as resource persons to give stimulation without assuming leadership.

Experience during the early months of this planning effort gave direction to the formation of basic policy decisions in methods of organization. All the literature stressed that the planning must be democratic and that it was to be a people's movement in community self-improvement through planning. An early step in getting the planning under way in a given county was to determine the boundaries for all the neighborhoods and communities. Once this was done, it was then possible to know what groups of neighborhoods could be counted on to work together in community planning and action. The county committee was then composed of representatives from each of the communities.

This type of organization made it possible to have neighborhood leaders, who represented families, come together around a conference table and think through the problems of the neighborhoods and the community. Care was taken in the selection of leaders who had a strong following in the neighborhoods. Always the emphasis was on the importance of having the people, through their leaders, plan for the community.

There were many problems which could be solved only with the aid of outside resources. Hence, the experts from governmental agencies sat as nonvoting members of the county committee. They were available for counsel with the committee on how their services might best be used in the communities.

While the program was officially referred to as Cooperative Land-use Planning, it was, as it unfolded, a comprehensive rural-life planning program having as its basic objective the awakening of rural people to their responsibilities as citizens. Experience clearly demonstrated that once the citizens of the community became concerned about their problems and needs, the community had within itself most of the resources to solve problems.

A typical planning committee concerned itself with land-use problems, farming and home problems, the school and improved education, church, farm organizations, recreation, creating interest in the community, citizenship development, and public-policy issues, both local and regional, which had a bearing on the communities and county.

The land-use planning program became a basic way of helping people do for themselves those things which, through education, they come to view as important. Congress no longer appropriates money for this purpose, and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the Department of Agriculture is forbidden by Congress to support actively land-use planning. The Cooperative Extension Service in the states is, however, giving leadership to community and county planning. While it is not now called "cooperative land-use planning," the methods being followed and the philosophy of leadership draw heavily on the experiences growing out of the earlier program. Indeed, many counties, over the years, have held to their planning organization as the basic way to organize communities for a wide range of programs.

This background and analysis of past and recent experiences in community organization as it has contributed to effective work in adult education has been given so that the present emphasis on the community in its proper setting may be seen.

When it is recognized that in rural America there are some 35,000 definable trade- or service-centered rural communities and that within these rural communities live over 5,000,000 rural families, the real significance of the community as an educational force may be appreciated. These communities vary greatly in the way they meet their responsibilities. Some are very well integrated groups, providing most of the people who live within their boundaries with a majority of the needed services and facilities. Others are so weak as to make one wonder if they really exist after all.

Farm Organizations. Over the years, the major farm organizations—the National Grange, the American Farm Bureau Federation, the National Farmers' Union, and the National Council of Farmer Cooperatives —have played an increasingly significant role in the field of education, particularly citizenship participation in local and national issues. All have undertaken to educate farm people to assume aggressively their rightful role as community, state, national, and, more recently, world citizens. The educational programs of these farm organizations are directed toward helping farm people become informed on the issues of the day. Through their local farm organizations, farm people get such facts as the road situation for their community and county; they study health needs; and they become informed about community, school, and recreational problems.

By the end of 1948, the American Farm Bureau Federation had 1,325,826 paid family memberships, the National Farmers' Union had 500,000 members, and the National Grange reported approximately 825,000 members. The National Council of Farmer Cooperatives differs from the other major national farm organizations in that its membership is comprised of farm business associations rather than individual farmers. It has a direct membership of 111 cooperative associations which, in turn, have a membership of some 5,000 local cooperatives comprising more than 2,600,000 farmer patrons.

Community organization is a method in adult education. To develop effective leaders, stable personalities, and an effective community in which people fully accept their responsibilities as citizens in a democracy is an objective or aim of adult education.

The Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service. One of the largest adult, out-of-school, tax-supported educational institutions in the world is the Cooperative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. The basic legislation creating this educational service some thirty years ago is referred to as the Smith-Lever Act. This act stated that the function of extension was "to aid in the diffusion among the people of the United States [of] useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of same." In elaborating, this act states that "agricultural extension work shall consist of the giving of instructions and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise."

It should be understood that the original act emphasized aiding farm people in the more technical aspects of farming and homemaking. Through the years, however, this initial act and subsequent legislation have been broadly interpreted to include helping rural people on all problems which either directly or indirectly have an influence on farm, home, and community life.

Farm men and women and leaders of county government refer to the county extension agents as "our county agent" and "our home agent." And this is a fairly true statement, for the county government does provide some of the funds to employ the county staff and aid in the operation of the office. The county also hires the agents, and if they prove unsatisfactory, dismisses them. The state extension office always consults with the county and recommends eligible and likely candidates, but the final selection rests with the county.

From its inception some thirty years ago to the present, extension has steadfastly stood by a basic principle in adult education of starting with the interests and needs of the people. Problems not immediately recognized by the people can be related to those that are recognized, thus utilizing present interest and knowledge in carrying on a continuous educational program.

Meeting Local Needs. The Extension Service begins its work by concentrating on such specific matters as nutrition, soil conservation, or marketing. The first step in such an educational campaign is to get the direct interest of a few key leaders. Extension, working with local leaders, assembles and analyzes factual information on the problems that have meaning for the community and county. The object of such an educational program is to stimulate the people to examine the facts in relation to their problems.

Workers in the field of education know full well that there is no such thing as blanket solutions for recognized problems. In most life situations there are alternative solutions. Extension strives to help people see these alternatives, so that the solution arrived at will be the one most appropriate to the individual, family, or group involved.

Educational Responsibility. In 1946, the United States Department of Agriculture Extension Service Committee, of which the author of this chapter was a member, outlined the nature of extension's educational responsibility as follows:[1]

> (*a*) From a *functional* standpoint this responsibility includes (1) the diffusing of information, (2) the development of an interest in and recognition of significant problems, (3) the encouragement of planning the best ways and means of solving the problems recognized, whether by individual or group action, and (4) stimulation of appropriate action by the people themselves in accordance with the decisions they themselves have reached.
>
> (*b*) From an *operational* standpoint, Extension's educational responsibilities extend to all "the people of the United States" having an interest in "subjects relating to

---

[1] Department of Agriculture, Extension Service. *Report of Committee on the Scope of Extension's Educational Responsibility.* Washington, D.C., January, 1946.

> agriculture and home economics," on an out-of-school basis, irrespective of their place of residence, age, economic status, group affiliations, or other factors that might be used to draw lines of distinction. First responsibility is to the people living on farms, but is not restricted to them.
>
> (c) From the *content* standpoint, it should be reemphasized that an evolutionary process of program determination is still going on as the people themselves develop appreciation and recognition of new problems affecting their welfare. In view of this fact, it is logical to assume that at any given time it will be impossible to delimit the content of an inclusive program for the Cooperative Extension Service which would be valid for all time to come. Likewise, it is probable that any specific definition of the scope of content of Extension's educational responsibility will not be acceptable to all persons concerned in all detail. . . .

The Professional Staff. In a given county, extension will usually have at least three professional people—a county agent, a home demonstration agent, and an assistant agent who helps with the 4-H Club and with young-farmer and young-homemaker activities. In some of the highly populated and advanced agricultural areas of the nation, it is not uncommon to find six or more extension workers in a county. These county extension workers are for the most part graduates of a state college of agriculture. In general the men have majored in some phase of agriculture such as soils or animal husbandry, and the home agents have majored in home economics. Increasingly, those who have taken social sciences and adult education are given preference. These agents are constantly seeking professional improvement by participating in extension-sponsored workshops or attending summer school at one of the land-grant colleges.

The number of county extension workers has steadily increased through the years. In 1948, there was a total of 8,785 agents engaged in extension work (see Table 30).

Financing the Program. The Cooperative Extension Service is truly cooperative both in terms of administration and in terms of the way it is financed. Funds come from Federal, state, and county appropriations. For the fiscal year 1949, a total of $64,315,000 was appropriated from all sources to support the extension work in the 48 states (see Table 31).

Being attuned to the needs of farm people, extension is oriented to the culture of the people. Particularly is this the case when extension is viewed in relation to the major cultural and type-of-farming regions of the nation. The people living in the dairy area have a system of crops and pattern of doing things that is in keeping with the culture of the area. Extension in this region must and does mobilize its services to give particular attention to all the problems related to dairy culture. The same is true for the wheat, corn, cotton, range-livestock, and other specialty areas.

A Working Philosophy. Increasingly, extension is finding that in its task of taking scientific information to the people and encouraging its adaptation and adoption, its staff must of necessity increase its knowledge and skills in the field of adult education and the related social sciences, particularly sociology, anthropology, and social psychology. This point has been forcefully made and adequately demonstrated in the two national conferences on extension methods and experiences around the world, the first of which was held in 1944 and the second in 1949.

TABLE 30. NUMBER OF EXTENSION AGENTS EMPLOYED AND COUNTIES REPORTING 1948

Kind of extension agent	Agents employed, Dec. 31, 1948[a]	Counties included in summary[b]
County agricultural agents and assistants	4,529	2,986
Negro county agricultural agents	356	366
Total agricultural agents	4,885	3,352
County home demonstration agents and assistants	2,965	2,526
Negro home demonstration agents	366	386
Total home demonstration agents	3,331	2,912
County club agents or assistant agents in charge of 4-H club work	563	830
Negro club agents	6	11
Total club agents	569	841
Grand total	8,785	7,105

[a] Data from personnel records, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service, Division of Business Administration.

[b] U. S. Department of Agriculture. *Extension Activities and Accomplishments, 1948.* Extension Service Circular No. 459. Washington, D.C., July, 1949. Work of assistant agents is included in the reports of agents in charge of lines of work in the county. Some assistant agents primarily responsible for 4-H club work reported as county club agents.

The cultural approach for extension is projected on the basis that since extension's task is education, then this task is basically to initiate and direct a process of social evaluation and cultural change. It is just common sense to recognize that before one can or should start to bring about change, one should know all possible aspects about the thing education is directed to change. For example, if the educational program is directed toward improving nutritional practices, cultural analysis should reveal answers to the following questions:

1. What is the present practice?
2. Why is it being done as it is?
3. What are the obstacles to improvement?
4. What is the concern for change?

   a. What individuals or groups evidence this concern?
   b. In what way is concern expressed?
5. What evidences of potential achievements are there in the activities of such groups or agencies? Are these groups organized to carry out specific activities?
6. What is *now* being done in applying extension or related educational approaches?
   a. How recently were these methods or approaches put into effect?
   b. How successful are the methods?
7. What additional extension or related educational approaches seem feasible?
8. What specific things about the culture (*i.e.*, deep-seated attitudes, traditions, the way people are organized, etc.) of the area should be thoroughly understood before deciding what approach and method to use?

TABLE 31. COOPERATIVE EXTENSION FUNDS BY SOURCES, 1915 TO 1949[a]
(In thousands)

Year	Total	Federal	State	County	Other
1915	$ 3,597	$ 1,486	$ 1,044	$ 780	$ 287
1920	14,658	5,891	5,229	2,866	672
1925	19,250	6,862	7,204	3,858	1,326
1930	23,728	8,745	6,842	7,036	1,105
1935	19,794	8,858	4,939	5,152	845
1940	32,255	18,273	6,229	6,666	1,087
1945	37,063	18,597	8,785	8,480	1,201
1948	57,205	26,895	16,478	12,268	1,564
1949	64,315	29,822	18,159	14,214	2,120

[a] U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Joint Committee Report on Extension Programs, Policies and Goals.* Washington, D.C., August, 1948. Figures for 1949 were obtained from the Extension Service, Division of Business Administration. To provide greater comparability, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, which have no county funds, are not included.

Extension seeks to maintain a two-way channel of communication between the farm people and the research resources of the land-grant colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture. From the research resources, extension has a responsibility of taking the findings to farm people. On the other hand, it has an obligation to inform the research people of the problems facing the people for which research has not yet given an answer. In meeting this phase of its work, extension has on its staff, both Federal and state, a wide range of specialists. These specialists are commonly referred to as "subject-matter people," meaning that they are informed and capable of giving leadership in highly specialized fields. Specialists are now working in the following fields: nutrition, health, recreation, family life and parent education, marketing, consumer education, farm management, clothing, home management, rural sociology, agronomy, dairy, poultry, forestry, agricultural engineering, horticulture, entomology, animal husbandry, and others related to special farm and home practices and problems. A large percentage of them have their master's degrees, and many have Ph.D.'s.

In planning a course of action with rural people, extension continues to act in the role of education, not telling people what to do but always aiding them in thinking through alternative courses of action. Experience has proved that, while there must be help in leading the people to act, the way people act must always be their decision. Education has a responsibility to help the people see what the alternative courses of action are and the possible implications of each.

The Demonstration Method. Extension has found that the local demonstration is a very important method. To local people, research findings and recommendations take on more significance when the findings of research can be applied on a given farm and in a home in the local community. This has been found desirable from two points of view. First the research needs further testing under field conditions, and the recommendations carry more weight if results can be seen by the local people. The local demonstration is simply a device for letting people see for themselves. A pasture-improvement demonstration might be organized on a given farm by treating one field and leaving an adjoining field as has been the farmers' custom over the years. At the end of a year or whatever period of time the demonstration is to run, the farmer and his neighbors can judge for themselves if the practice pays off enough over the old methods to warrant changing current practices.

The demonstration may be used either to show how to solve or alleviate a recognized problem or to show up a problem. In the former case, the problem might be poor yields from oats. The demonstration might be a combination of improved varieties and cultural practices. As for showing up a problem, the county agent may see a need for pasture improvement, but as yet the people may not have seen it as a problem needing attention. Working with a farmer and getting him to try out new pasture-improvement methods which produce startling results might serve to point up the existence of a problem.

Typical demonstrations for the women and home would be kitchen improvement, home beautification, and landscaping. For the farm, it might be dairy herd improvement, pasture improvement, or strip farming.

A discussion of extension within a given county would be incomplete without analyzing the outstanding educational work being carried out through the home demonstration clubs. For the most part, these are neighborhood groups and, as such, tend to draw a cross section of farm women from the area. To be sure, like all formally organized groups, they follow general formal organizational patterns and in some communities tend to serve a larger proportion of the women in the upper socioeconomic group.

A year's club activities might include such topics and activities as health, kitchen improvement, food preservation, repair of furniture, beautification of the home, landscaping, good books, world peace. For each activity, the groups select one of their own members to serve as activity leader. These activity leaders get their help from the county home demonstration agent. Where a group of clubs is interested in the same activity, leaders from each club generally spend one day per activity in a leader-training school conducted by the county home demonstration agent.

While in the earlier years of extension work in a county the home demonstration agent personally attended most club meetings, the trend is for the women to be self-sufficient in the conduct of most of their club meetings.

Increasingly, extension is functioning as the informal coordinator for the development of a basic county agricultural and rural-life program for the county. It is only because extension functions in the broad role of adult education that it can perform this unique assignment. It is now apparent that this job will not get done without extension leadership.

Always before the family are two factors: their family goals and needs, and the resources of the farm. The question then becomes one of how to develop a farm plan which will underwrite and help the family achieve its goals. This is a very great and significant departure from the traditional farm-management approach which was primarily focused on efficiency of labor return.

The family approach recognizes the importance of husband, wife, and children sharing in the planning. It takes account of the fact that the wife can become a strong influence in encouraging the husband to carry out the plan. It places greater responsibility on the husband to aid in the modernization of the home.

4-H Club Work. The one phase of the Cooperative Extension Service best known to the school people is without doubt the 4-H club work. In many communities, particularly in the South, the 4-H club program is a very definite part of the school program. Usually one teacher is assigned the responsibility of 4-H club leader in the school, and a definite period of time is set aside during the school week for the clubs to hold regular meetings.

The prevailing pattern of organization and the one which, in the mind of the writer, more nearly follows the basic objectives of the club work is to have the club function outside the school program and under voluntary lay leadership. This is not to say that many of our finest club programs are not school-sponsored. They are. Studies, however, indicate that the best clubs are those strongly sponsored by the community and having local lay leaders. In general, the latter maintain a stronger tie with the family which is so very essential in a vital club program.

The 4-H Clubs are focused toward providing educational experience for boys and girls between the ages of ten and twenty-one years of age. With few exceptions a given club will center upon a farm or home enterprise agreed upon by the members. For the boys, it may be a pig project or one on dairy, poultry, or corn, and for the girls, one on sewing, canning, or home beautification. Many clubs are not focused on a single activity, and many girls participate in farm-type programs.

Beyond the farm or home activity, the 4-H Clubs throughout the nation are concentrating on developing boys and girls to take their places as informed citizens in their community, county, state, and nation. So great is this emphasis that the National 4-H Club Camp, held annually in Washington, D.C., has for the past several years taken as the camp theme, "Know Your Government." This is not an idle phrase, for the campers are systematically shown the Federal government as it works, and lively and intelligent discussions follow the various tours of the nation's capital.

Health and recreation are universally stressed through the 4-H program. It is not unusual for a 4-H Club to sponsor a range of community events.

Community Discussion Groups. There are always many problems which cannot be solved on a community basis. These call for unified action on a county or larger area basis. It is clear that the job of planning a county rural-life program can be done only within the framework of adult education. It must move slowly and must continually be viewed as an educational process.

A technique long found useful in this field of public opinion education is group discussion. Group discussion as such is as old as extension itself. Many, if not most, of the ideas currently being examined and tested by the people in group dynamics are tried and proved extension educational techniques. At one time many states employed a full-time leader in group discussion. The current thinking in extension is that group discussion is and must be thought of as a basic method in adult education and that all extension workers must therefore increase their skill in its use.

An Evaluation of Extension Methods of Work. It has been said that the strong link in the Cooperative Extension Service are the thousands of voluntary lay leaders with whom the county staff works on disseminating educational information. In 1948, extension worked with approximately 794,522 voluntary lay leaders—men, women, and youth—who gave a total of 1,350,365 days of free work in helping to inform their neighbors about possible ways of meeting local, farm, home, and community problems.

Extension methods are many and varied. Following the cultural approach, methods are successful only when adapted to fit the situation. In extension's efforts to extend its coverage and speed up the adoption of improved farm, home, and community practices, the effectiveness of various extension methods upon the adoption of practices is a field of continuous research (see Table 32).

TABLE 32. RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF METHODS UPON ADOPTION OF PRACTICES

Method	Percentage of practices influenced by methods	
	About 1929[a]	1939[b]
Indirect influence	21.31	19.71
Method demonstrations	15.18	16.41
General meetings	13.80	13.92
Farm or home visits	12.34	12.53
News stories	10.27	9.70
Office calls	6.75	6.58
Bulletins	6.52	6.80
Result demonstrations	6.67	6.58
Circular letters	1.53	2.43
Radio	1.53	1.27
Correspondence	1.23	1.15
Leader-training meetings	0.92	1.03
Extension schools	0.77	0.76
Exhibits	0.61	0.56
Telephone calls	0.38	0.37
Study courses	0.15	0.15
Posters	0.04	0.04

[a] Based upon 27,032 practices on 8,738 farms in 12 states. See Wilson, M.C. *Extension Methods and Their Relative Effectiveness*. Technical Bulletin No. 106. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, February, 1929.

[b] Based upon 34,330 practices in 18 areas. Information obtained from a study made by the Division of Field Studies and Training, to be published by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service.

Rural Libraries. The discussion of out-of-school adult education would be incomplete without a brief analysis of the rural library. As a tax-supported educational institution, the rural library has performed yeoman service through the years. With the past years' experience to build upon and the great need for expanding the library facilities, the future is challenging.

Fortunately educational and civic leaders are increasingly recognizing that the library is and must be a necessary corollary institution to the school. The school takes young minds and stimulates them to read and seek new knowledge, but without the library available to serve the searching minds, the school has frequently worked in vain. One of the educational lags in rural America is that of library facilities, which are nonexistent in some 600 counties. In 1943, the last date such information was reported, approximately 35 million people in the United States were without library services, and 32 million of these were rural. We can readily see that the most immediate and pressing job in the field of the rural library is the immediate establishment of additional facilities so that they may be within the reach of all rural people.

Obviously, then, the job of extending libraries must become the concern of all who have a responsibility in the field of education, for until the library facility has been established, the educational program for any community will be inadequate. Over and over again experience indicates that one function of education is to educate people to recognize their problems and needs. This is certainly true for the library, for its absence from many communities is not in many cases now felt.

Libraries, like most other community services, are an expense, but one which is not as great as people generally believe. The American Library Association estimated that the community should be able to provide adequate library services at a cost of $1.25 to $1.50 per person per year. While this may be prohibitive for many communities without some Federal or state aid, it still, however, cannot be considered as a substantial barrier to any community that realizes it needs a library. With few exceptions, the communities most in need of libraries are also those most in need of general school improvement.

To conclude that all communities need the services of a rural library is not to suggest that every community either could or should attempt to provide directly a library facility. The library as a facility is much like the high school and the hospital, in that every community needs to have the service readily available but does not necessarily need to have the location of the facility in its immediate area. Experience has proved the wisdom of helping rural people take a regional approach, or one based on an area larger than their community, to the question of providing needed library services to all not now served.

The regional plan of library organization has many advantages and a few disadvantages. Too often the smaller area cannot provide adequate books to meet a range of interests and needs, and certainly it will not be able to supply a competent professional librarian so essential in a modern library program. By working together as part of a county or larger area, the smaller areas can be adequately served through a bookmobile and branch libraries.

It is becoming increasingly clear that the library approach must be in relation to an over-all community educational program. Altogether too often the school people have centered their attention on the school. People need to be guided in seeing the library as an essential part of an educational system. This cannot just happen. It requires leadership and the combined efforts of all educational forces. Someone needs to spark an interest, help direct the development of interest, and find a way to bring library facilities to the community.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Is it desirable to integrate the adult educational agencies at the community level? What would be involved in doing so?

2. Are the schools at present equipped to assume a major leadership responsibility for community adult education?

3. Could the library and the school be combined into one over-all adult institution in the community?

4. To what extent do services for nonschool educational programs reach the people most in need of them? In order to answer that question, rank the counties of a selected state according to the average income and a composite index of standards of living and find to what extent extension services, public library services, church programs for young peoples' activities, and membership of major farm organizations reach the people. In view of the relationships discovered, what are the logical conclusions with respect to financial policies used by both public and private agencies in meeting greatest needs? Make special application to the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service and to public library services.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Brunner, Edmund de S. *Community Organization and Adult Education.* Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1942.

———, and Yang, E. Hsin Pao. *Rural America and the Extension Service.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Campbell, Angus, and Metzner, Charles A. *Public Use of the Library and Other Sources of Information.* Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1950.

Kelsey, Lincoln David, and Hearne, Cannon Chiles. *Cooperative Extension Work.* Ithaca, N.Y.: Comstock Publishing Company, Inc., 1949.

Lippitt, Ronald. *Training in Community Relations.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

Ogden, Jean and Jesse. "These Things We Tried." *University of Virginia Extension Bulletin,* Vol. XXV, No. 6, Oct. 15, 1947.

SPECIAL SERVICES FOR PUPILS

During the last thirty years public schools have gradually developed certain special services that have done much to improve the effectiveness of the entire educational program. Of these, the following will be discussed in this chapter: health education; the education of the handicapped; guidance; and the supervision of attendance. In general, the rural areas have been behind the cities in the development of these services. This has been due partly to a slower recognition of the importance of these services and partly to the lack of a system of financing that enabled rural communities to add them.

Health Education. Good health is, obviously, basic to success in any line of work; it is a significant means in enabling the individual to realize upon his potentialities.

Extent of Illness in Rural Areas. In their recent volume on rural health, Mott and Roemer have summarized the available data comparing health conditions in urban and rural areas. While we are not here concerned with the relative extent of illness in the two situations, the following statement from these writers may be quoted in passing:

> There are presumptive reasons, in fact, for expecting that among all rural people as a group the volume of illness would be at least as high if not higher than among urban. Entirely aside from the lack of medical and sanitation resources, demographic factors like the age distribution, the birth rate, the racial composition, and the income levels of rural people are such as to suggest theoretically a higher volume of illness and disability.[1]

The relative frequency of types of illnesses among persons in places under 5,000 and in open country as reported by the Committee on Costs of Medical Care for the period between 1928 and 1943 was as follows: diseases of the respiratory system, 40.7; diseases of the digestive system, 12.0; infectious diseases, 11.7; injuries and poisonings, 8.6; diseases of the nervous system, 4.4; diseases of the skin, 5.3; diseases of the puerperal state, 4.4; other and ill-defined diseases, 5.2; other general diseases, 2.2; diseases of the circulatory system, 2.1; diseases of the genitourinary system, 2.4; diseases of the bones and organs of locomotion, 0.6; malformations, 0.3.[1]

---

[1] Mott, Frederick D., and Roemer, Milton I. *Rural Health and Medical Care.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948, p. 77.

The same authors, using data from the United States Public Health Service, show the following number of cases of communicable diseases per 100,000 population in certain rural states in 1942: measles, 447.8; mumps, 365.2; chicken-pox, 278.6; whooping cough, 197.9; malaria, 191.9; scarlet fever, 120.9; tuberculosis, 66.2; dysentery (bacillary), 55.9; diphtheria, 18.3; septic sore throat, 6.3; typhoid and paratyphoid fever, 5.5. Other diseases show a frequency of less than 5 but will not be enumerated here. Comparisons between certain urban states and certain rural states show a considerably larger degree of prevalence of the following diseases in the rural states: mumps, chickenpox, whooping cough, malaria, scarlet fever, dysentery, and diphtheria. Tuberculosis, in the rural states, is considerably less frequent than in the urban states, while measles shows a somewhat lower rate.[2]

While certain types of diseases are more or less common to both city and rural areas, it is of interest to note certain important factors affecting the rural health situation. Mott and Roemer make the following analysis of factors:[3] (1) geographic (*e.g.* goiter, mottled tooth enamel due to high fluorine content in soil and drinking water, exposure to the elements); (2) plants and animals (*e.g.*, skin reactions to poisonous plants, accidents, spotted fever in certain sections, tularemia); (3) sanitation and housing (*e.g.*, hookworm, typhoid—"an essentially rural disease"—undulant fever, and malaria); (4) occupational diseases of agriculture (*e.g.*, sunstroke, accidents with farm machinery, poisonings from insecticides and fungicides); (5) rural poverty (*e.g.*, pellagra, trachoma); (6) lack of specialized medical services.

If, as seems to be the case, the health situation among rural people is less satisfactory than among urban people, that fact should be an additional incentive to action. Whether or not the situation is worse in rural areas, there is no doubt but that health conditions there can be improved, and the attention of all governmental agencies, including the school, should be focused upon this problem. Where illness is due to peculiarities of the rural environment or to the inadequate facilities provided in that environment, particular effort should be made to give attention to these factors.

The Physical Examination in the School. If the school is to influence significantly the health of children, the first step is to appraise health conditions among them. This is done by a health examination that will cover a wide variety of physical conditions; a record of illness for recent years; specific immunizations; evidence of frequent occurrence of such symptoms as aching eyes, recurring headache, discharge from ears, toothache, sore throat, nausea, fainting spells; information about height and weight; hearing acuity; visual acuity; examination of heart and lungs; conditions of the mouth and teeth, etc. Where the evidence justifies, certain special tests are desirable—X-ray of the chest; tests for albumen and sugar in the urine; a blood count and a hemoglobin test. For pupils who participate in athletics, a special examination is desirable at the beginning of each season in order that heart disease, hernia, or other dangerous conditions may be identified.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 88. These figures are the percentages of the 13 types of illness included in the data.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 93.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 96–112.

Such an examination should be made by a qualified physician with the nurse assisting in recording data, giving the Snellen vision test, and the like. Usually, a reasonably adequate test cannot be made in less than ten to fifteen minutes. These examinations are sometimes, as in New York, made every year. However, many persons believe that such tests if made every two or three years only are likely to be done more carefully. If there is suspicion that a particular child needs a special examination, this should be given as required. All these examinations may be done either by the physician employed by the school, by physicians hired by the county health department, or by the family physician, depending upon the wishes of the community. Teachers are being trained to do certain screening tests for vision and hearing and to observe the general health status of their pupils. Such health observation by the teacher, with questionable cases referred to the school doctor or the family physician, is very helpful in getting disease under treatment with incipiency.

Dealing with Health Needs. Parents should, of course, be notified of any physical defects discovered in the course of the examination. This notification to parents may consist simply of sending a card home by the child or through the mail. Many schools follow this card, however, with letters and, if necessary, send a nurse to persuade hesitating parents of the need and to advise them regarding ways and means of having the deficiency corrected. Most families will prefer to have the family physician take responsibility. However, it must be recognized that some families do not realize the importance to the future welfare of the child of having any defects cared for at once or, even if they do recognize this, may not be financially able to employ a private physician. In such cases, the public health department of the county or township, if there is one, should make its services available. Sometimes this becomes a responsibility of the welfare department.

A school nurse is a desirable member of any professional school staff.

This person takes general responsibility for assisting teachers in dealing with matters of communicable disease, visits parents to urge and assist in procuring correction of defects, provides advice and material to the teachers for all of the health courses offered by the school, and becomes an important liaison officer between the school and the family on all matters of health.

The extent to which rural schools assume responsibility for the different phases of the health program is indicated by the data for 1936 published by the Educational Policies Commission (Table 33). There appear to be no recent data of comparable nature. In view of the considerable increase in the health services provided in schools during the period 1926 to 1936, one can be reasonably confident that the situation is now better than it was in 1936. It is certain, however, that much remains to be done.

TABLE 33. PERCENTAGE OF 121 COUNTIES PROVIDING HEALTH SERVICES THROUGH DIFFERENT AGENCIES, 1926 TO 1936[a]

Health services	Percentage of counties in which service is provided				Percentage of change in health services provided in schools in these counties, 1926–1936[b]		
	Schools only	Other agencies only	Both school and other agencies	Neither school nor other agency	Increase	Decrease	No report
Daily health inspection	70	3	..	27	64	6	30
Dental examinations	29	9	14	48	67	4	29
Dental treatment of indigents	12	31	10	47	56	7	37
Dental treatment of all children	2	3	3	92	71	14	15
Immunization	35	26	17	22	66	..	34
Medical examinations	37	21	14	28	56	2	42
Medical treatment for indigents	10	41	13	36	57	4	39
Medical treatment for all children	1	6	2	91	67	..	33
Psychiatric service	1	14	4	81	100		
Visiting nurse service	27	23	11	39	63	..	37
Weighing and measuring of children	64	8	12	16	54	..	46

---

[a] Education Policies Commission, National Education Association. *Social Services and the Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1939, pp. 138, 139.

[b] Including services provided by schools only and by both school and other agencies.

In passing, it may be noted that data presented in the Commission's report but not included here show that in most of these services the cities were ahead of the counties both as regards the functions performed by the school and as regards those performed by the school in cooperation with other agencies. In general, the counties, much more frequently than the cities, provided no health services through either school or other agency.

Data for 1947–1948 for New York show the extent to which physical defects among the children in central districts have been treated (Table 34). While considerable progress is being made in New York in the treatment of physical defects, it is evident that there is still great need for effort along this line.

TABLE 34. PHYSICAL DEFECTS FOUND IN PUPILS IN THE CENTRAL SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK, 1947–1948, AND THE PERCENTAGE OF THESE THAT HAVE BEEN TREATED[a]

Defect	Number of defects found	Defects found per 1,000 pupils	Percentage of defects treated
Nutrition	5,035	25.5	69.0
Teeth	81,156	411.0	58.0
Eyes	18,315	92.7	78.0
Tonsils	20,360	103.0	32.0
Thyroid	736	3.7	51.0
Heart	2,496	12.6	71.0
Hernia	787	4.0	53.0
Speech	1,618	8.2	53.0
Orthopedic	1,546	7.8	68.0
Posture	2,040	10.3	72.0
Feet	4,062	20.6	55.0
Total	154,345	781.0	57.7

[a] Mimeographed data from the New York State Education Department. These data are based upon the examination of 95.5 per cent of the 206,678 children enrolled in central schools. It should be understood that these data are collected from local school districts, and since different standards for determining what is a "defect" and what constitutes a "defect treated" probably prevail, the data can be used only as an approximate statement of the situation.

Data from New York regarding certain other defects are of interest. Of the 206,678 pupils registered in central schools, 90.9 per cent received the Snellen test; 7.6 per cent were found to have defective vision on the basis of this test; 66.5 per cent of these received treatment. Fifty-one pupils were recommended for sight-saving instruction, but only 22 were receiving such instruction. A chest X-ray was made of 20,353, and in 12 cases, or 0.06 per cent, active tuberculosis was diagnosed.

Communicable Diseases. The school also has a responsibility in the control of communicable diseases. The home-room teacher may, through an early-morning examination, discover pupils who appear not to be in normal health. If there is reason to suspect the presence of a communicable disease, the child should at once be isolated temporarily and, as soon as possible, sent home. Any needed medical care will, of course, be provided by the family physician or the public health authorities.

Immunization against smallpox, diphtheria, whooping cough, and tetanus is coming to be accepted practice. The initial immunization for all these will usually have taken place before the child comes to school, but if this has not been done, the school has responsibility for educating the child and his parents as to the desirability of such immunization. The question of doses that will keep immunity at its original level should also be considered. The Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators presents a useful table giving valuable information regarding communicable diseases, such as the period of incubation, the usual method of transmission, immunization, and general control measures.[1]

Health Instruction. The modern school should give instruction in health education, the purposes being the presentation of important knowledge regarding health, the development of right attitudes toward health, and the suggestion of desirable health practices.

There is not space here to describe even the important elements of a health program in detail. The reader is referred to any of the references given in the bibliography.

If health education is to be made to function, it is important that the program begin with the needs of the individual. Oberteuffer has stressed this point and suggests that the teacher, in setting up her program of instruction, make use of student questions, parental testimony, opinions of experts, morbidity statistics, mortality analysis of school, home and community life, the physical examination record, and social records.[2] He suggests also the value of units of work as a basis for making the instruction effective. He illustrates these units of work by giving suggested outlines for units on such specific health programs as medical care, tuberculosis control, food, and respiration. The health instruction program will naturally be correlated with other activities in the school and outdoors, and with activities in the community. The physical education program will include corrective physical education procedures, athletics, school camp, safety policies and devices, and cooperation with local, state, and national health agencies such as the Red Cross and the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis.

---

[1] Bracken, John L., Chairman, *Health in Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942, pp. 202–203.

[2] Oberteuffer, Delbert. *School Health Education*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, pp. 35–84.

Cooperation of School and Health Authorities. While the school is not responsible for the health situation in a community, it does have important responsibilities as regards education for health. The health activities of the school may be under the direction of the board of education, under that of the board of health, or under joint auspices. In any case it is important that there be no thoughtless interruption of the school program by health authorities.

Sometimes medical authorities have felt that it is their responsibility to give the physical examinations and to take care of the health conditions in the school. The problem is one that calls for cooperation between school and health agencies, each taking responsibility for its own particular function. The health education of school children is a responsibility of the school. This includes the physical examination, but a wise board of education will appoint a competent practicing physician to give these examinations and will do what is possible to see that individual children make use of the medical facilities of the community. Clinical services will be provided by the various health agencies in the community—the practicing physicians and dentists, the hospital, and such governmental health facilities as may be provided.

Health offers a peculiar opportunity for school and community to work together. Sometimes programs for more effective health conditions are initiated by the school officers, sometimes by the health officers, sometimes by the two working in close cooperation. Useful descriptions of types of programs developed under each of these three methods are made available through the American Public Health Association.[1]

The Education of Handicapped Children. This program is a significant one for several reasons. In the first place, it is important to discover those pupils with handicaps of one kind or another in order that, if possible, the difficulties may be eliminated. If elimination is not possible, then every effort should be made to prevent the handicap from becoming more serious. Obviously, if a child of low vision or with a serious speech defect can be given an education suited to his needs, including appropriate vocational preparation, the saving to society through enabling him to be self-supporting is enormous.

The education of the handicapped is also important because of the effect a handicap usually has upon progress in school. For example, a study in 1938 made in New York City showed that while only 6.8 per cent of children in regular elementary classes were one-half year or more over age for their grade, those with cardiac conditions were over age to the extent of 40.6 per cent; those in classes for the crippled were over age to the extent of 41.7 per cent; the blind in elementary schools, 50.0 per cent; the deaf by 92.3 per cent; the low-visioned, 32.3 per cent; those with tubercular conditions, 36.8 per cent.[1] Some overageness is almost certain to prevail among children of this group, but undoubtedly proper educational provision can greatly reduce its extent.

---

[1] Turner, Clair E., Chairman. *Community Organization for Health Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: The Technology Press, 1941, p. 120.

Educational provision for most types of handicapped children has been relatively recent. In general, schools or classes for children of this type originated in Europe in the last part of the nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century. Shortly thereafter various cities in the United States began to develop such programs. As of 1948, 41 states had adopted laws authorizing or requiring local school systems to provide such educational services for one or more types of handicapped children.

The Incidence of Handicapped Children. It has been estimated that about 12 per cent of children of school age have one type of serious handicap or another. However, until more extensive surveys have been made on the basis of uniform standards, we can do little more than make use of estimates. The United States Office of Education gives the following percentages of children of school age with specific handicaps:

Blind or partially seeing	0.2 per cent[a]
Deaf or hard of hearing	1.5
Orthopedic defects	1.0[b]
Lowered vitality	1.5
Speech defects (serious)	1.0–2.0[c]
Epilepsy	0.2
Intellectually retarded	2.0
Behavior or emotionally unstable cases	2.0–3.0

[a] Martens, Elsie H. *Needs of Exceptional Children.* Leaflet No. 74. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1944, p. 3.

[b] Of which about one-third need special educational services.

[c] This figure is sometimes given as 5 to 8 per cent when less serious cases are included.

The Intermediate District Study in New York, which gave special emphasis to this problem, working independently, arrived at figures very similar to those presented above.[2]

The reader should recognize that the foregoing figures are little better than intelligent guesses as to the incidence of various handicaps. Some competent persons believe that there are many more cases than these data indicate. Furthermore, there are other types of handicap that merit attention, *e.g.*, the cardiac and the socially maladjusted. Gifted children, while constituting a very different type of problem, also deserve some special attention.

---

[1] McCormick, Harold D., Director. *Physically Handicapped Children in New York City.* New York: Board of Education, 1941, pp. 52–55.

[2] Butterworth, Julian E., *et al.*, *Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas.* Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1946, pp. 69–77.

Uncertainty as to the reliability of available data suggests that as soon as possible two steps should be taken: (1) have an authoritative group prepare standards for determining when each type of handicap is sufficiently serious to justify special educational service; (2) use these standards in making surveys in a variety of situations until we have reasonably accurate data regarding the frequency of each type of handicap. As the result of this we should discover whether, as may be suspected, social and economic conditions affect the incidence of handicaps. We shall also know whether there is a significant difference between urban and rural communities in this regard.

While in most cases a child has one handicap only, sometimes he has two or more. For example, a child may be both low visioned and mentally backward, or he may be both low visioned and hard of hearing. A study made in Onondaga County, N.Y.,[1] in 1948, showed that of 3,909 exceptional children 82.5 per cent had one handicap only; 14.7 per cent had two handicaps; 0.2 per cent had three handicaps; 0.03 per cent had four handicaps; and 0.002 per cent had five handicaps. Naturally, the educational problem is made more complex where more than one handicap is involved.

Special Educational Facilities Now Provided. The report of the Division of Exceptional Children in the United States Office of Education showed, for 1947–1948, that 441,820 children of this type were enrolled in residential schools and in special day schools and classes. This figure was an increase from 385,180 in 1940. On the basis of an estimate that approximately 4 million children of school age were handicapped, it is evident that only about 11 per cent were receiving special educational services. "No doubt many of the others are being adequately cared for in regular classes by capable and understanding teachers. But there is no doubt, either, that many exceptional children are still going without the special instruction they should have."[2]

The Problem in Rural Areas. While many handicapped children in city schools do not have special educational facilities provided for them, the situation appears to be much more serious in the rural areas. Here and there provision has been made in the way of a special class for the backward or a sight-conservation class, but, in general, the problem has been neglected. This is partly due to the fact that in a small school district there is not likely to be more than one or two cases of handicapped children. Clearly, the small district cannot carry this burden alone.

---

[1] Cruickshank, William M., and Sprague, Elfreda. *A Survey of Exceptional Children.* Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University, 1948, p. 20 (mimeographed).

[2] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). *Biennial Survey of Education, 1946–48.* Washington, D.C., 1950, Chap. 5, p. 3.

The difficulties involved in making special educational provision for these children can be shown through the data in the accompanying table. Here is given, for each of four groups needing special services, the desirable size of class and, on the basis of that size and the frequency of the handicap, an indication of the school enrollment that will usually be necessary to provide the special services efficiently and economically. Few local school districts in the rural areas have an enrollment of even 1,000.

Type of handicap	Desirable size of class	School enrollment likely to provide such a class
Mentally handicapped.......	20	1,000
Low-visioned...............	20	10,000
Speech and Lip Reading......	200[a]	4,000
Physically handicapped......	18	4,500

[a] The approximate number of cases that the speech specialist can care for when pupils needing this assistance are withdrawn part time from regular classes.

Brief Descriptions of Representative Programs. Since the totally blind require a highly specialized type of instructional service, and since the percentage of such children is small, only the large cities can economically provide for this group. Commonly, a state has one or more schools for the blind or makes arrangements for provision in nearby states. For those children who are classified as low-visioned, two types of classes are provided: that in which the pupil spends the entire time in the special class; and that in which he attends regular classes for many class activities and uses the sight-saving room only where study is involved. The second seems to be the more common.

While, in the tabulation above, 20 is indicated as a desirable size of class, this size is justified only where children from not more than one or two grades are present. If most of the elementary grades are represented, then obviously the size of the class should be reduced; 12 to 14 is suggested as a desirable standard. In New York, a class of 10 will be approved for state aid; if the number is below 10, then proportional aid for this class is given.

The basic purposes of the sight-saving class are to provide the best possible conditions for study and to teach children how to conserve their eyesight. To these ends, it is desirable that the sight-saving classroom be well lighted, with well-diffused light from both natural and artificial sources. Desks should be adjustable so that the slant of the desk top may be changed to meet varying lighting conditions. The room should be provided with books printed in large type of which there is now an increasing supply. The paper should have a rough finish, and, if ruled, should have lines about 3/4 inch apart. Soft black lead pencils and soft chalk should be provided. A typewriter with large type is also important. These represent minimum essentials.

The teacher of such a class not only should be competent as a teacher of the appropriate grade or grades, but should have had special preparation for dealing with children of this type. New York State, for example, requires that such a teacher have 12 credit hours of training in the field of special education, of which six should be in specific training in sight-saving-class work.

Obviously, the parents should be informed of the child's condition, and definite instructions should be given as to how the home may cooperate with the school in conserving the child's eyesight. Medical attention for many type of defects is necessary. While this should be provided by the family where possible, there are cases where the school may have to take the responsibility. The child should not be allowed to suffer because of the lack of proper medical attention.

Speech defects include such difficulties as stammering or stuttering, lisping, baby talk, foreign accent, nasality, or a high-pitched, harsh, or monotonous voice. These defects may be due to deficiencies in the vocal organs, to nervousness, to partial deafness, to early bad training, or to the environment in which the child lives. Commonly, such children are enrolled in regular classrooms and are withdrawn for certain periods of special work with the speech specialist. Experience shows that effort of this sort yields excellent dividends. Regular teachers may do much for those children having the less serious forms of speech defect, especially if they can work under the general direction of the specialist.

A common type of special service for those with low mental ability is the class for the backward into which, usually, are put those with an IQ of 50 to 75. Those with an IQ below 50 should be in a special institution for the feeble-minded. Backward children will be expected to do academic work, but obviously it must be adjusted to their intellectual ability. Handwork of various types and direct experience in many kinds of life problems will have an important place in the program.

The foregoing brief statements can do little more than call the attention of the rural educational leader to the importance of providing for these deviates among our school population. As he begins to plan a program for them, he will find that the administrative literature is voluminous. Only a few of the most important references are included in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

How to Provide These Services. As may be expected, the per-pupil cost for special programs for the handicapped is much higher than in the case of regular pupils. Heck has shown that the cost of educating crippled children in 17 cities varied from 2.9 to 6.4 times the regular per-pupil cost.[1] The median was 3.8 times the regular cost. It need hardly be said that, despite these high costs, society must assume the responsibility. Looking at it merely from the financial point of view, it is a wise investment to do everything possible for these exceptional children in order that they may, if possible, be made self-supporting members of the community.

Since the average small school does not have enough pupils with one kind of handicap to justify the special service needed, the best solution appears to be in bringing into cooperation enough small school districts that the program becomes practicable. A county-unit type of organization or an intermediate-district organization where the various school districts in an area that is roughly comparable to the county in size are brought into cooperation is usually sufficiently large to assume this responsibility. In some local schools of this larger district there might be placed a full-time teacher of backward children; one or more speech specialists could serve all of the schools; and one sight-saving class could probably be justified if the enrollment in the entire area is as high as 10,000. Other services should be provided as needed.

In Ottawa County, Ohio, for example, a sight-saving class was initiated in 1927. At present, it has 11 pupils enrolled, some of whom are transported to school daily and some of whom board in the community in which the school is located. The new intermediate district law of New York makes it an obligation of the board of education of the intermediate district to provide, among other services, a program for handicapped children.

School Guidance Services.[2] During the last three decades there has been a growing awareness of the importance of the guidance function in education. The problems in this field of endeavor are fully as deserving of attention in rural areas as in urban centers. The present discussion is addressed primarily to men and women who are or who aspire to be in positions of leadership in rural areas, particularly in the public schools. Its purpose is to help such individuals to foster better guidance services in their own communities. Its method is to present for consideration a discussion of some of the principles and practices of guidance, with emphasis upon the problems of rural schools.

---

[1] Heck, Arch O. *The Education of Handicapped Children.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940, p. 117.

[2] This section was written by A. Gordon Nelson, Associate Professor of Educational and Vocational Guidance, Cornell University.

Purpose and Scope of Guidance. The word "guidance" has a variety of connotations; in the writing and speaking of educators as well as laymen it is frequently confused with "education," "pupil personnel services," and "counseling." For the sake of clarity of discussion, therefore, it is necessary to explain the meaning of "guidance" as the term is used here.

The most inclusive of the four terms is *education*—it means all the facilities and services provided by society for the purpose of influencing the development of individuals in directions which society considers beneficial to itself and to the individuals. *Pupil personnel services* refer to attendance, health, psychological, and guidance services provided in an educational institution. *Guidance services* include all activities specifically planned: to (1) help students choose curricular, extracurricular, and vocational opportunities consonant with their individual needs and characteristics; and (2) help pupils solve personal-adjustment problems. *Counseling* is one of the functions of a guidance program. Its major vehicle is an interview or a series of interviews. The staff members involved in the rendering of any given educational service are not always the same persons. Teachers often have opportunities to counsel with pupils. Guidance workers in some schools are called upon to perform duties which in other schools are assigned to specialists such as visiting teachers and school psychologists. Counselors frequently teach.

A full-fledged guidance program includes the following functions:

1. Collecting and interpreting information about the needs, characteristics, and problems of pupils. Examples: maintaining cumulative records; testing; writing anecdotal reports.

2. Obtaining, and making available for use, information about educational, occupational, recreational, and other types of opportunities. Examples: publishing a school handbook; making a collection of vocational pamphlets; keeping a file of data about community agencies to which a counselor or a teacher may turn when he needs assistance in connection with his efforts to help certain pupils.

3. Employing group procedures which supplement regular classroom instruction and are designed to give pupils information and experiences which they need in order to make intelligent choices and to solve personal problems. Examples: taking a group of eighth-grade pupils from a rural school to a city school which they will be attending the following year; conducting a career-day program; teaching a twelfth-grade class in educational and occupational information; obtaining and disseminating announcements of scholarship opportunities.

4. Counseling. Examples: interviewing tenth-grade pupils in order to help them choose appropriate eleventh-grade subjects; discussing with a senior girl her difficulties in chemistry; encouraging a freshman to participate in some of the cocurricular activities of the school; job-placement counseling; encouraging qualified seniors and graduates to take advantage of post-high school vocational training opportunities provided by technical institutes, apprenticeship programs, junior colleges, four-year colleges, etc.

5. Organizing, administering, and supervising the guidance program. Examples: determining the guidance services needed; developing cooperatively with the staff a new cumulative-record system; conducting a case conference with faculty members regarding a pupil who is maladjusted.

6. Doing research for the purpose of discovering facts needed in order to evaluate and develop the guidance program. Examples: making a community occupational survey; conducting a follow-up study of dropouts and graduates; determining how a local school may best offer a "life-adjustment curriculum"[1] to young people.

Within this broad framework of services, a guidance program in a rural school should deal effectively with problems peculiar to rural areas, such as broadening the vocational horizons of young people who have had limited opportunities to learn about the many occupations they might enter; counseling in respect to entrance into farming and related fields of work; helping individuals who wish to migrate to urban areas; and providing assistance for atypical children in spite of a dearth of special resources.

Guidance workers in rural areas should have an appreciation of the values as well as of the disadvantages associated with rural living, and should be aware of the attitudes held, especially by young people, in respect to these values. An interesting and promising attempt to measure such attitudes has been made by W. A. Anderson of the Department of Rural Sociology at Cornell University. In discussing the potential usefulness of the measuring instrument which he has constructed, Anderson says:

> It is particularly important to know what youth thinks of rural living. Farming as an occupation is changing rapidly. It is more competitive. It requires, more than ever, scientific and business skill based on broad knowledge. Mobility is increasing. People can live almost anywhere they wish now. And these changes will probably come more swiftly in the immediate future. Youth must make decisions on life-work programs. They need guidance about where to raise their families. Knowledge of the opinions they hold will make constructive help in these matters possible.[2]

Some Guidance Assets of Rural Schools. Workers in rural schools sometimes exhibit a defeatist attitude toward the possibility of providing guidance services in their communities. They focus their attention on the weaknesses of their situations—*e.g.*, limited curricular opportunities, lack of trained personnel, the heavy teaching load of faculty members, and lack of financial support—and then conclude that a beneficial program is practicable only in affluent urban areas.

---

[1] See *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*, a bulletin prepared by the Division of Secondary Education and the Division of Vocational Education of the U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), Washington, D.C.

[2] Anderson, W. A. *A Study of the Values in Rural Living*. Part I, "A Scale for the Measurement of the Values in Rural Living." Memoir No. 277. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, November, 1947, p. 6.

It cannot be denied that factors such as those mentioned above make the offering of guidance services more difficult. On the other hand, it should not be forgotten that many rural schools have certain guidance assets. Of six described by Froehlich,[1] three are mentioned here:

1. In small schools faculty members have greater opportunities to know their pupils well and to develop that real understanding of individuals which is invaluable in counseling with them.
2. Pupils in rural schools usually know their teachers well. The latter, therefore, " . . . have an excellent opportunity to set examples of personal behavior and adjustment." Furthermore, "Rapport can be more easily established if the hurdle of strangeness does not need to be jumped."[2]
3. The functioning of a guidance program may be facilitated by the close ties which often exist between rural schools and the communities in which they are located.

Rural-school leaders who are envious of the resources available in urban areas will find Froehlich's book encouraging and helpful. In it are described many specific programs carried on in schools which have not been overwhelmed by their handicaps but, instead, have capitalized on their assets.

Organization of Guidance Services. It is sometimes assumed that the needs of pupils are adequately met by incidental guidance services and that therefore an *organized* program is unnecessary. But unplanned and uncoordinated activities are ordinarily not as effective as they are believed to be. They seldom reach all pupils; they may overlap or duplicate one another; and they rarely lead to the improvement of present services or to the offering of needed additional ones.

In any educational institution in which a guidance specialist is not available, responsibility for the initiation and organization of a program, with the personnel and material resources available, rests squarely upon the administrative head of the school. If he does not have vision and enterprise, it is unlikely that very much will be accomplished.

Some of the factors that have a bearing on the organization of a guidance program in a given institution are its philosophy of education; the characteristics of its student body; the competencies of its staff members; and the extent of its finances. It is not possible to prescribe an organizational structure that can be "guaranteed to work" in all rural schools, but it is possible to state some general precepts which should be observed. Here are three very important ones:

---

[1] Froehlich, Clifford P. *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950, pp. 4–7.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 4.

1. Take time to cultivate the understanding and to enlist the cooperation of those who are to do the work. Participants will function effectively in a guidance program only if they understand its purpose and believe that it is worth while.
2. Find out what the most pressing needs are in the situation, and plan to meet these needs first—if it is possible to do so with the money, staff, time, and facilities available. For example, it might be more important and more feasible in a given community to provide thorough vocational-preparation counseling as a first step in the development of a guidance program than it would be to embark upon an extensive occupational-research project.
3. Never ask a teacher to do something he is not qualified to do or cannot learn to do with a reasonable expenditure of time and effort. "It is better to offer only a few services of high quality than to have an extensive program operated by unqualified workers."[1]

A few communities, chiefly in New York, have found it helpful to employ jointly a "shared" director, who devotes a portion of his time to each school in the area served and functions as an organizer, consultant, and supervisor. The region served may be a county, an intermediate district, or merely a group of two or more contiguous communities. Northrup[2] has made an extensive study of shared guidance programs in New York State.

The development of a single school's guidance program can be greatly facilitated and augmented by the provision on a regional basis of supplementary resources such as a mental-hygiene clinic, an occupational-information library, a testing bureau, and the services of a school psychologist. A group of schools in a given area that has been organized, for example, according to the intermediate-district plan, may be able to support educational services which no single school in the group could, by itself, afford.

It would be unrealistic to close this brief discussion of the organization of guidance services without calling attention to the need for such services among out-of-school youth and young adults. Individuals in these categories frequently need assistance in making educational and vocational plans and in reaching decisions concerning other personal-adjustment problems. In some communities, adult counseling is provided by day-school workers, who function as an integral part of evening-school programs. A setup of this kind tends to "round out" a guidance program and to give it continuity.

Sources of Help. Publications are one type of aid available to rural-school leaders who are determined to improve guidance services in their own communities. In order to keep up to date on the new materials which are published from time to time, it is helpful to have one's name placed on the mailing lists of commercial publishers, professional organizations, and Federal and state education bureaus.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 61. The quality of guidance services is, of course, related not only to the qualifications of the individuals who do the work but also to the load they are asked to carry. Many authorities believe that a desirable ratio is one full-time counselor to every 300 pupils. Few schools have such a ratio.

[2] Northrup, Grant J. *The Duties, Qualifications, and Professional Problems of Shared Counselors in New York State.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1950.

Visits to schools that are known to have effectual guidance programs constitute a second source of help. A practice which "works" in one community is not *necessarily* practicable in another, but it *may* be, particularly if it is modified in the light of local conditions. Furthermore, visits of the type mentioned often provide the kind of inspiration which leads to action.

State departments of education are a third source of assistance. In nearly all such departments there are bureaus of guidance which have been established to aid local schools. These bureaus not only publish useful mimeographed and printed materials but also offer advisory and supervisory services.

College and university departments of education, particularly those which prepare counselors for public school work, are a fourth source of help. They may offer extension courses, hold counseling "clinics" for youth in their vicinity, provide consultants, furnish speakers for meetings, issue extension bulletins, etc.[1]

The reader will discover other sources of aid, plus many specific practical suggestions, in the selected references on school guidance services listed at the end of this chapter. There is, of course, no *easy* answer to the question, "How can a rural school organize a guidance program?" But a review of the literature reveals that a number of schools " . . . have overcome seemingly insurmountable barriers by a variety of methods."[2]

Attendance Service. The passing of compulsory-education laws in our states is evidence that the American people are concerned that all children attend school with reasonable regularity until they have satisfied minimum requirements. Our conception as to what these requirements should be is changing as we realize the importance of education in our increasingly complex society.

To achieve desired results it is necessary that attendance administration do more than use state law to keep children in school. While in some cases it may be necessary to have recourse to law for this purpose, a more constructive approach to the problem is to be preferred. This approach calls for an analysis of reasons pupils do not attend and for the expenditure of effort in removing or reducing the causes. If the truant or the prospective dropout believes that school is not worth while, there is need for analyzing the school's program to see what can be done to improve the situation. If the home does not see the importance of regular attendance, there is opportunity for the school to try to change that point of view. If health is the significant factor, it is evident that the health authorities of the school or the community should have a responsibility.

---

[1] Nelson, A. Gordon. "An Extension Project in Counseling." *School and Society*, Vol. 66, No. 1711, Oct. 11, 1947, pp. 284–287. Fowler, Seymour, and Nelson, A. Gordon. "A Survey of Interest in a Proposed Extension Service in Guidance." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 42, No. 9, May, 1949, pp. 700–703.

[2] Froehlich, *op. cit.*, p. 40.

The efficient attendance supervisor should be more than a part-time poorly paid truant officer. Such a person will seldom have the educational understanding that will enable him to deal with the problem in a constructive manner. He should be a professionally trained person who because of his educational understanding can work with pupils, home, and school. Such a person should be analytical in dealing with such problems yet should possess sympathy and tact. It would be desirable for him to have had preparation for and experience as a teacher; it is almost imperative that he have had some preparation as a social worker. In New York State a person holding a valid teaching certificate who is employed as an attendance supervisor may be certified as an attendance officer if he has preparation that includes two semester hours each in attendance supervision, behavior problems, and social case investigation.

Since most rural schools, even of the larger community type, will not need a full-time attendance worker, the solution is to be found in placing this responsibility with the county unit or the intermediate district. The officer in charge of this program will need the cooperation of local teachers and principals as well as the assistance of counselors and school nurses. If the enrollment of the county or intermediate district is large, it will often be desirable to attach to his office one or more visiting teachers.

The taking of the census may also be made a responsibility of the attendance supervisor and his staff.

Coordinating Pupil Personnel Services. As our county and intermediate districts develop, it would be in accord with sound organization if a division of pupil personnel services were established. To this division might be assigned responsibility for guidance, for health education, for the education of handicapped children, and for census and attendance. The head of this work might be designated as assistant superintendent, as director, or as supervisor. Whatever functions in these several fields should be assigned to the county or intermediate district, there must be close working relations with the professional staffs of local schools or districts.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In the light of the suggestions made in this chapter, evaluate the health education in your school. What improvement, if any, would you suggest?

2. On the basis of the incidence of handicapped children of different types suggested in the section on this subject, estimate the probable number of children needing different kinds of special service in your district. If possible, make a careful census of the number of such pupils. Then prepare a plan for providing the most important services during the next five years through both your local and intermediate districts.

3. Evaluate the guidance services now provided in your school. (In doing this, you may wish to use the criteria recommended in Chapter 15 of Froehlich's book, *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools.*) In what areas of guidance does your school seem to need strengthening? List steps you could take to begin to improve the program.

4. Write to your state department of education, and to a college or university in your state which prepares counselors, regarding your desire to improve guidance services in your school. What specific assistance can you obtain from these sources in connection with your efforts to strengthen the program?

5. What provision is made in your community for dealing with problems of nonattendance? Plan a program that will provide professional leadership in your county or intermediate district. As you now see the problem, what are the chief reasons for unsatisfactory attendance?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Health Education

Bracken, John L., Chairman. *Health in Schools.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942.

Mott, Frederick D., and Roemer, Milton I. *Rural Health and Medical Care.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948.

Oberteuffer, Delbert. *School Health Education.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949.

Education of the Handicapped

Heck, Arch O. *The Education of Handicapped Children.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1940.

Kirk, Samuel A., Chairman. *The Education of Exceptional Children.* Part II of the Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

New York City Board of Education. Bulletins dealing with the following types of handicapped children: acoustically handicapped; orthopedically handicapped; epileptic; cardiac classes and the care of cardiac children; open-air classes and the care of below-par children; the education of children in hospitals and convalescent homes; the physically handicapped. New York, 1941.

Opportunities for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children. Chicago: National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., 1949.

School Guidance Services

Forrester, Gertrude. *Occupational Pamphlets, An Annotated Bibliography.* New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1948.

Froehlich, Clifford P. *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950.

———, and Benson, Arthur L. *Guidance Testing.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1948.

Hamrin, Shirley A., and Paulson, Blanche B. *Counseling Adolescents.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1950.

Markham, W. T. *The Organization and Operation of a Program of Occupational Information and Guidance in Rural Communities.* Guidance Bulletin No. XXVI. Topeka, Kan.: State Board for Vocational Education, 1945.

Strang, Ruth, and Hatcher, Latham. *Child Development and Guidance in Rural Schools.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1943.

Zeran, Franklin R. *Matching Men and Farms.* Vocational Division Bulletin No. 229. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1944.

Attendance Service

Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1944, Chap. XXVIII.

Heck, Arch O. *Administration of Pupil Personnel.* Boston: Ginn & Company, 1929, Chaps. V and VI.

Holley, Charles E. *The Relation between Persistence in School and Home Conditions.* Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1916, Part II.

CHAPTER 16

EDUCATION FOR DISADVANTAGED GROUPS IN RURAL AREAS

The people of the United States have emblazoned to the world that "all men are created equal," that is, they are equal in rights. Equality of educational opportunity is everywhere accepted as an American doctrine. But profession outruns performance. Educational opportunities for several million Americans are below any tolerable standard.

Who these disadvantaged Americans are and where they are is well known. They are the low-income people in agriculture, especially the migratory agricultural workers, many of the rural-nonfarm people engaged in mining and manufacturing, the Negroes, the Indians, and the Spanish Americans and other foreign-language groups. No part of the nation has a monopoly on the disadvantaged population. They are found in all parts of the country.

The disadvantages consist of low income; lack of ownership of property; exclusion from legal benefits of social legislation; effective (if not legal) disfranchisement; segregation; discriminations in facilities, opportunities, jobs, and public services; a woeful lack of educational opportunities; and the effective operation of a caste system where caste is not supposed to exist.

There are many parts to the solution of the problems of the disadvantaged. Some of them are matters of legislation and public policy; others are matters of attitude and sense of fair play on the part of the majorities. Fundamentally, all solutions rest upon equally available educational opportunities consisting of education that faces the life situations and needs of the disadvantaged people and the needs of society for their cooperation and services.

Minorities and the Equal Chance. People who practice democracy only within the limits of their own caste do not constitute a truly democratic society. It is not at all certain that our forefathers understood the full import of their proclamation that all men are created equal and endowed by their creator with certain inalienable rights. Our ideals, like the stars, are a long way from our mundane path; but they are a guide to our journey. Nowhere is there more poignant evidence of the failure of our practices, customs, attitudes, and institutions to keep pace with social and political professions than among the minority groups and disadvantaged classes of our population. "Minority" as used here does not necessarily mean a minority in numbers, but a minority in privileges, advantages, opportunities, recognitions, and status.

A few pertinent questions serve to focus attention on the problem of a fair chance for the minorities. Does America hold the same promise and ensure the same opportunity to children born in a house on the avenue and to those born in a cabin in an isolated mountain cove? Does it bring them this same opportunity whether they begin life with a pigmented skin along the banks of the Mississippi or with a white skin in an exclusive residential area? All the known facts give a negative answer.

Who are these minorities, how many people are involved, and where are they found? Of those persons of differentiated ethnic origin, the most numerous are the Negroes, who constitute about one-tenth of our population; the Spanish American group, about 5,000,000; about 200,000 persons of Oriental ancestry; and about 350,000 Indians.[1] Within the native white population, numbers of rural people live in isolated mountain areas where schools are few even for children of elementary grades. One of the largest groups of the underprivileged children, probably a million of school age, belong to the 600,000 families of seasonal workers who migrate from state to state and region to region following the crops.[2] The number of people living in agricultural areas of low economic resources, the hired farm laborers, and the families of persons gainfully employed in lumber, mining, and textile manufacturing in rural-nonfarm areas is not known exactly. However, there certainly must be not less than 10 million such people.

The disadvantaged people are found in many areas of distress spread over the country as a whole. There is small choice among the disadvantaged third of our nation; little economic difference among the rocky New England farms, the cutover timber land of Michigan, the land of "Egypt" in southern Illinois, the counties of southeastern Missouri, the cannery communities along the eastern shore, the migratory trails of California and Florida, the Mississippi delta land, the "Tom towns" of the South, and the slums of any city.

---

[1] Caliver, Ambrose. *Education of Teachers for Improving Majority-minority Relationships.* Bulletin 1944, No. 2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), p. 3.

[2] Ducoff, Louis J. "Farm Laborers." *Rural Life in the United States* (Carl C. Taylor, *et al.*). New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949, Chap. 16, p. 289.

The most obvious features of the disadvantages these minorities have are low income; poor health; poor housing; limited occupational opportunities; lack of public services such as those given by farm agents, home demonstration agents, and 4-H club leaders; lack of health services, libraries, and recreational facilities. Other grave disadvantages for many minority groups are effective political disfranchisement and educational opportunities of a poor quality.

Even casual acquaintance with education for the disadvantaged reveals shocking discrepancies and discriminations in matters of financial support, administration, supervision, and instruction; in length of school term; and in the training and salaries of teachers. These discrepancies result in excessive retardation of pupils, in lack of clinical and guidance services, and in a program of instruction and experiences inappropriate to the needs and interests of the children. The schools thus lack vital relationships to individual, family, and community needs.

Causes of Disadvantages. The causes of the discrepancies in equal facilities and opportunities for the minority groups are many and complex. One of the chief causes is lack of economic resources either through natural cause or through waste. The people often do not own the land they till, or if they do, it is not enough or too poor to afford a living. In many instances destructive methods of agriculture are the cause; in others isolation from markets sharply limits possibilities of ample income. In other cases exploiters and speculators have stripped the country of its resources, moved on, and left the working population isolated and stranded.

Ignorance, superstition, and lack of productive skills are potent causes of poverty and social exclusion, as are exploitation of human labor in agriculture, lumbering, and mining.

With some groups language difficulties and customs have made adjustment to the ways of the majority group and acceptance by them difficult.

There are also legal discriminations, such as effective means practiced for excluding the minorities from the ballot. A democratic citizenship can never be created without a voice in determining economic and political policy.

Segregation is an often mentioned cause of unfavorable social and economic status. In several states racial segregation is supported and enforced by constitutional and statutory law. But it is made just as effective in many other states and cities by custom, attitude, and economic sanctions: the unwritten laws. Economic rivalries and limited ideas of democracy are the fundamental causes of segregation which are expressed in many ways. Its obvious forms are "Jim Crow" laws applicable to travel facilities, eating places, places of amusement and recreation, hotels, business establishments, public buildings, and schools. Among its less obvious forms, unsupported by statutes, are job segregation or exclusion. By custom and practice many jobs and occupations are simply not open to the racial minorities.

Whatever else is said, it is a fact that the fundamental causes of many aspects of the disadvantaged status of the minorities are the unethical attitudes of the majority groups and a rather universal neglect of the practice of the golden rule or of Micah's admonition "to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God."

Education and the Removal of Disadvantage. It is not entirely clear just how in the foreseeable future all the disadvantaged minorities are going to get into advantaged status, but it is entirely clear that it cannot be done without free public education of a kind and quality that meets the life needs of all.

A great deal depends also upon what the minority groups and the individuals in them do for themselves. They are not likely to become accepted by the majorities until they themselves become acceptable. Such commonplace matters as language, speech, manners, personal hygiene, dress, and the ordinary social amenities are absolutely indispensable. In addition the members of the minority groups must be able to perform useful economic and social functions. Again the *sine qua non* of the solution of such problems is the quality of education made universally available to each youngest generation.

Of the educational matters that most intimately concern the welfare of the minorities, the first is that schools be made available and that the children attend school. Every study made of the situation confirms the conclusion that many children in isolation or in areas of extremely low economic resources, many of whom belong to the disadvantaged minority groups, simply have no schools available. Specific data will be presented in later sections of this chapter.

There is no doubt whatever that most of the approximately two million seven- to seventeen-year-old children not in any school in 1947 were among the disadvantaged minorities, mostly in the rural areas cited previously.[1]

Assuming that schools are available, the kind of education most appropriate for the minorities is that adapted to their circumstances and conditions. In America the education of citizens for our way of life is an objective for all education, but it should be remembered that each pupil and each group of pupils must begin where they are and learn in the environment in which they find themselves. The kinds of education needed have been described in various chapters of this book.

Disadvantaged People in Agriculture. In 1945 there were more than 1.4 million farms yielding a gross farm income of less than $600; about

---

[1] See Chap. 1, p. 14.

900,000 yielding less than $400; and over 450,000 yielding less than $250. On these farms approximately 6.3 million men, women, and children lived, including at least 2.0 million children of school age whose lives were disadvantaged because of low purchasing power.[1]

Farm Tenants. In 1945 there were nearly 1.9 million farm tenants in the United States, 31.7 per cent of the nation's farm operators. Of that number nearly 1.5 million were tenants who held the land by giving the land owners a share of the crops produced. Among the tenants in the South there were over 446,000 "croppers,"[2] who in general owned no livestock or equipment and exchanged their labor for a share of the crop. With the increased use of machinery in farming, "croppers" tend to shift to day-laborer status.

Some of the low-income farms were operated by debt-burdened owners struggling against heavy odds.

The regions of greatest density of tenancy were the Southern cotton-growing area, the heart of the Corn Belt, the Appalachian and Ozark highlands, the Great Lakes states cutover area, northern New Mexico, and Arizona. The tenants are found among all racial and nationality groups: whites, Negroes, Spanish Americans, Indians, and others.

Migrants and Other Hired Farm Workers. In 1947 nearly 4.1 million individuals were engaged in hired farm labor. They received average annual wage income equal to about half the average annual wage income of industrial workers. Most of them were part-time workers, and 90 per cent of them lived in rural areas the year round.[3]

About 600,000 of the hired farm workers were migratory laborers who followed the crops.[4] These migratory farm laborers, except about 120,000 imported foreign workers, came chiefly from the agricultural areas of low income, overpopulation, and excess labor supply already mentioned. They include members of all racial groups. They are characterized by insufficient employment security; low annual earnings; illiteracy or near illiteracy; high infant mortality and morbidity rates; and exclusion from the benefits of minimum wage laws, fair labor standards, unemployment compensation, workmen's compensation, and old-age insurance.

Most of the migratory workers, and many others, are employed by large-scale operators, and employment conditions are more like a factory than the traditional American farm.

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1948.* Washington, D.C., 1949, p. 627.

[2] Taylor, Carl C., Ducoff, Louis J., and Hagood, Margaret Jarman. *Trends in the Tenure Status of Farm Workers in the United States Since 1880.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, July, 1948, p. 22.

[3] Ducoff, Louis J. *op. cit.*, p. 283.

[4] *Idem.*, p. 289.

These migratory workers are found throughout the nation. They are in the tobacco fields of Connecticut; the vegetable fields of New Jersey and the Atlantic Coast states of the South; the fruit orchards of Florida, Texas, Arizona, and California; the onion fields and broccoli fields of Texas; the strawberry fields of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Kentucky; the sugar-beet fields of Colorado, Utah, Idaho, Minnesota, Michigan, and other states; the hop fields of Washington and Oregon; and many other crops in those and other states.

Lack of Educational Opportunities. Educational opportunities for disadvantaged classes in agriculture are the poorest in the nation, many children being without any schools effectively available. Where schools are available, they have the shortest school terms; the poorest school buildings; the poorest paid, and consequently the most inadequately trained, teachers; the fewest high school opportunities with the most meager vocational instruction; the poorest school attendance; and instruction least related to the life needs of the pupils.

Examples of the educational problems will illustrate deficiencies that must be met. For instance, a survey of school attendance of 1,000 children, ages six to eighteen, in Hidalgo County, Texas, in 1941, showed that almost 600 of them had migrated during the year. Only half the children six to fifteen years old were enrolled in school, some never having attended any school. Of those enrolled many missed the first two or three months of school. There were frequent absences because of work in the vegetable fields and frequent withdrawals a month or two before school closed. Only 16 per cent of the migrant children who enrolled in school attended as much as 120 days during the 175 days of the school term, as compared to 60 per cent of the nonmigratory children.

Some could not speak English, read, or write. When the migrant children were in school, many were discouraged because of placement in classes that had already started and under teachers who were too overburdened to give them much individual attention. Many consequently dropped out.[1]

Migratory children usually do not attend school while on the "trek." According to a report from 14 counties in Michigan where there were a great many workers from Texas, only 710 of the 2,570 migratory children were enrolled in school. Similar situations are found in other parts of the country.

---

[1] Warburton, Amber Arthun. "Education for Children of Migrant Families." *Project VIII, Southern Educational Problems.* Reprint from Hearings on Study of Agricultural and Economic Problems of the Cotton Belt before the Committee on Agriculture, House of Representatives, 80th Congress, 1st Session. Washington, D.C., July 7 and 8, 1947, Chap. 7, pp. 45–52.

The children of migrants are usually not welcomed by the schools or the people of the communities. When the harvests are over the migrants are expected and often compelled to move on. In addition to poor teaching and other school facilities for migrants, school home visitors are usually not employed; and attendance officers, if there are any, are mere police officers. School administrators do not press for school attendance of itinerant children when it means spreading still further the school's offering and resources which are already substandard.[1]

Improving the Status of the Disadvantaged. Three things are paramount in improving the status of the disadvantaged: The improvement of *health* through better services, knowledge, and practices; increased amount and stability of *income*; and more and better *educational opportunities.* The first two matters are dependent in no small degree upon the third.

Some of the problems of the disadvantaged will have to be solved by legislation and changes in public policy. Such matters are of concern to rural education because information about them should be taught in the regular school courses and in adult classes. Among other things, the following public policies and services are needed: (1) better laws regulating tenancy contracts; (2) extending the benefits of social security, minimum-wage, and fair-labor-standards laws to agricultural workers; (3) more reasonable and dependable credit facilities for both current operations and long-term purchases of farms and homes; (4) public facilities and publicly regulated facilities for migratory agricultural workers; (5) medical and hospital services; (6) eradication or rigid control of child labor in commercial agriculture;[2] and (7) a large expansion of services through an ample number of farm and home demonstration agents and 4-H club supervisors.

Improving Educational Opportunities. Among the educational measures needed in behalf of the disadvantaged people in agriculture are (1) increased state support of public schools with the increased funds going where the need is greatest; (2) Federal aid to the states for equalization purposes; (3) state and Federal funds for school buildings and equipment; (4) removal of all residence requirements concerning eligibility to attend school and the enforcement of compulsory school-attendance laws; (5) revision of compulsory school-attendance laws so as to give equal protection to rural and urban children; (6) special financial aid through state and Federal funds to maintain schools especially for children of migratory agricultural workers; (7) an ample supply of specially trained teachers paid superior salaries sufficient to get and keep their services; and (8) programs of instruction and activities based on the situations and needs of the disadvantaged.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 47–48.

[2] Under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 as Amended in 1949 under P.L. 393, 81st Congress, children under 16 years old must be in school. The law applies to agricultural as well as industrial employment.

Disadvantaged Rural-nonfarm People. Many rural-nonfarm communities have an undue share of disadvantaged people. Over half the nation's workers engaged in mining, lumber, furniture, lumber-products, and cotton-textile industries live in rural areas. Wage, employment, and living conditions in the lumber and cotton-textile industries of the South and in the coal-mining regions nearly everywhere they are found have been exceedingly unfavorable. With the advent of organized labor in these industries during recent years wages, hours, and working conditions have considerably improved. Living conditions, housing, and health services and standards are, with a few notable exceptions, exceedingly low. Community life is often of the poorest quality.

School facilities in some of the mill towns and mining areas are miserably poor.

The difficulties of the people in the worst of the industrial nonfarm areas arises not so much from low income as from the fact that everything is owned and all public business run or dictated by the owners and operators of the mills or mines. Disfranchisement, economic coercion, and lack of ideals on the part of the people are the causes of many of the low standards.

One of the most unfortunate causes of disadvantage is sometimes the lack of understanding on the part of the teachers of the fundamental needs of the pupils and their parents. Too often the teachers represent the economic and social elite, are subservient to them, and in times of conflict or effort to attain political, civic, social, educational, or economic improvement take their side against the masses of the people. The remedy seems to be through teacher education, greater employment security for teachers, better state laws, and most of all universal and unfettered economic, civic, and voter's rights by all citizens.

Education of Negroes. The largest minority group in the United States is the Negroes, of whom there were about 13.0 million in 1940, and somewhat less than 15.0 million in 1947.[1] This group of American citizens is not a minority by virtue of color and ethnic origin; it is a minority in privileges and opportunities, especially in educational opportunities. A disproportionate number of Negroes are among the lowest income groups in the nation; they have higher maternal and infant death rates, higher morbidity rates, and a lower life expectancy than their white neighbors; they live under legal, extralegal, and social segregation; fewer occupations are effectively available to them than to white people; and they have an undue share of the poorest schools, least well financed, in the nation. If the people of the United States wanted to do the most in the shortest time to raise the economic and educational averages of the nation, they would undoubtedly concentrate efforts and public resources in behalf of the Negroes.

---

[1] Estimated from Murray, Florence (ed.). *The Negro Handbook, 1949.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949, p.4.

Rural Population. No small part of the disadvantages of the Negroes comes from their rural status. In 1940 about 4.5 million, or 34.7 per cent, were living on farms; and about 2.1 million, or 16.4 per cent, were rural-nonfarm residents.[1] Practically all the rural Negro population is concentrated in the Southern states, mostly in the areas devoted to growing tobacco, cotton, and sugar cane. Among these rural-farm people are the highest percentages of farm tenants, "croppers," and day laborers to be found in the nation. They suffer from all the handicaps of such people described previously in this and other chapters.

Migrations. The Negro farm population decreased rapidly between 1940 and 1947, from about 4.5 million to only 3.3 million. However, the rural-nonfarm population increased by nearly a quarter million.[2] The First World War sent a tide of nearly half a million Negroes into Northeastern and Western industrial cities. The Second World War sent another tide of over 600,000 to those cities, a movement fraught with the dramatic and sometimes tragic conflict of men and ideas, of change and resistance to change. Thus the educational and cultural status of Negroes has become a matter of national interest and welfare, no longer concentrated in the Southern states.

Southern Concentration. The Negroes are to a large extent concentrated in 17 states and the District of Columbia that maintain legally segregated schools for Negroes.[3] In fact in 1940 about 10.0 million, or 77 per cent, were in those states, over 50 per cent being in 7 states, with 25 per cent in Georgia and Mississippi.[4]

Segregated Schools. One of the outstanding facts about schools for Negroes and one of the conditions that has resulted in inferior educational opportunities is the maintenance of separate schools for Negroes. Segregation has its origin chiefly in the history of the Negro in this country as a slave and then as a freedman in the Reconstruction following the War

---

[1] *Ibid,* p. 6.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. Arizona, Indiana, and Kansas also make segregated schools permissive by law.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *The White House Conference on Rural Education.* Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 174.

[4] Murray, *op. cit,* pp. 4–5.

Between the States. It is a practice that originally was followed in all parts of the nation. It was gradually abolished by law in 12 states. In 14 states the law is silent on the question; in 5 states segregation is permissible; and in 17 states—all, except Delaware, south of Mason and Dixon's line—segregation is required by law. However, segregation is practiced in several of the states where the law forbids it or is silent. Segregation is not exclusively a Southern institution; it is found in many Northern cities.

Under segregation the theory and legal requirement is that school facilities shall be separate but equal. The theory has not worked out very well, and the legal requirement of equality has been more honored in the breach than the observance. Until recently the courts have not examined the facts as to equal facilities. Now, however, the Federal courts take cognizance of the facts and, where they indicate inequality, issue mandatory orders to make educational facilities equal. The first actions of that kind were with respect to teachers' salaries. Within any school district Negro and white teachers must receive equal salaries for equal qualifications and responsibilities. Some states, notably North Carolina, have provided by legislative appropriation for equal salaries. Several cities have equalized salaries. For the most part inequality is still the prevailing condition.

The trend is definitely toward the abandonment of segregation as a legal institution. Negroes have recently been admitted to the state universities of Arkansas, Oklahoma, Kentucky, and Texas. Segregation will probably be abandoned in the public schools first in areas where there are very few Negroes. It will without doubt be continued for a long time in areas of high concentration of Negro population. It is a strongly entrenched institution. Although many Negro leaders actively oppose separate schools, it is a fact that many Negroes prefer separate schools. One reason is that Negroes are certain to have the teaching jobs in Negro schools as long as schools are separate.

Educational Deficiencies. Several important facts give an idea of the past and present deficiencies in educational facilities for Negroes. The following facts pertain to the 17 states and the District of Columbia that maintain separate schools:

1. In 1940 about 11.7 per cent of the Negroes twenty-five years old and over had not been to school as much as one year, as compared to 2.8 per cent of the whites; and 37.0 per cent of the Negroes and 11.6 per cent of the whites were functional illiterates. In the proportion of functional illiterates the range for Negroes ran from 20.9 per cent in the District of Columbia to 62.5 per cent in South Carolina; and for whites from 2.2 per cent in the District of Columbia to 21.0 per cent in Louisiana.[1]
2. The Negro rural-farm population twenty-five years old and over in 1940 had attended school an average of only 4.1 years, as compared to 8.0 years for the white

---

[1] "Availability of Education in the Separate Negro Schools." *Journal of Negro Education*, Yearbook No. XVI, Vol. XVI, No. 3, Summer, 1947, p. 264.

rural-farm population of the same age group. Similar differences were found among the nonfarm groups, but not so great. There was four times as high a proportion of whites as Negroes with a high school or college education.[1]

3. An excessively large number of Negro pupils are in the lower grades of the elementary schools. For example, in 1944–1945 in Arkansas 28.3 per cent of the Negro elementary pupils were in the first grade as compared to 18.2 per cent in the white schools. Of the Negro elementary pupils in the 17 states and the District of Columbia, nearly 60 per cent were in the first four grades, as compared to 45 per cent for the white children.[2]

4. Of the Negro children of high school age, only 27 per cent were in high schools in 1940 as compared to 53 per cent of the whites.[3]

While the comparative status of schools for Negroes taken as a whole is still very unfavorable, the trend has been definitely upward. The trends between 1929–1930 and 1945–1946, as well as the status in those two years for five measures of school efficiency, are shown in Table 35. The following statements summarize the chief facts:

1. The average difference in length of school term has been reduced from 26 days to 5 days, the Negro school terms being the shorter. However, the difference in the lowest state in the latter year was 24 days in favor of the whites.

2. Data as to the average number of days attended by each child enrolled in schools are not available for 1929–1930. In 1945–1946 the average difference was 10 days in favor of the whites. In the lowest state the difference was 43 days in favor of the whites.

3. In 1929–1930 the average Negro teacher had 33½ per cent more pupils than the average white teacher; in 1945–1946 the Negro teacher still had a 25 per cent heavier load. In the lowest state the load was 40 per cent greater in the latter year.

4. In 1929–1930 the ratio of current expense per pupil in average daily attendance in Negro schools to that per white pupil was 1.00 to 3.33; in 1945–1946 the ratio had dropped to 1.0 to 1.8. In the lowest state the ratios were 1.0 to 8.9 and 1 to 5, respectively, for the two years.

5. In 1929–1930 the ratio of the average salary of the Negro teachers to that of white teachers was 1.00 to 2.26; in 1945–1946 the ratio was 1.00 to 1.45. In the lowest state the ratio was still 1.00 to 2.73.

Progress in Education. In spite of all the unfavorable aspects of Negro education today, it is well to keep in mind that great progress has been made in the last eighty-five years. At the close of the War Between the States, some 85 or 90 per cent of all Negroes were illiterate. There were no schools for them, and the South was economically prostrate. Today there are several thousand elementary schools and about 2,500 high schools for Negroes. There are now about 2.25 million Negro children in elementary schools and 300,000 in high schools.[4] Enrollments in colleges have in-

---

[1] *Ibid.*

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 319, 440.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 451.

[4] Caliver, Ambrose. "Fifty Years of Progress in Public Education," *Pittsburgh Courier*, May 20, 1950, pp. 8–9.

TABLE 35. COMPARATIVE DATA FOR WHITE AND NEGRO SCHOOLS BASED ON 17 STATES, 1929 TO 1930 AND 1945 TO 1946[a]

Item	Median		Highest state[b]		Lowest state[c]	
	1929–1930[d]	1945–1946[e]	1929–1930[d]	1945–1946[e]	1929–1930[d]	1945–1946[e]
Av. length of term, days:						
White	160	175	164[f]	185[g]	131[h]	183[i]
Negro	134	170	158	186	101	141
Av. no. of days attended per pupil:						
White	......	149	......	157[j]	....	164[i]
Negro	......	139	......	162	....	121
Pupil-teacher ratio:						
White	33	28	29[k]	27[j]	37[l]	30[i]
Negro	44	35	27	25	48	42
Current expense per pupil in average daily attendance:						
White	$ 50	$ 105	$ 62[g]	$ 138[m]	$ 35[i]	$ 75[i]
Negro	$ 15	$ 58	$ 44	$ 133	$ 4[n]	$ 15
Av. salary per teacher:						
White	$1,077	1,640	1,474[g]	$2,297[g]	$620[i]	$1,165[i]
Negro	$ 475	$1,134	$1,115	$2,127	$160	$ 427

---

[a] Derived from Blose, David T. "Statistical Summary of Education, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1949, Chap. I, p. 29. Data for 1929–1930 are derived from a series of reports in "The Availability of Education in the Separate Negro School." *Journal of Negro Education*, Yearbook No. XVI, Vol. XVI, No. 3, Summer, 1947.

[b] The highest state in each case is the highest on the item for Negro schools. Pupil-teacher ratio is considered in reverse order, a low number making the state high.

[c] Lowest state is lowest on item for Negro schools. Pupil-teacher ratio is in reverse order.

[d] Median for item 1 is based on 7 states; item 2, no data; item 3, on 6 states; item 4, on 10 states; item 5, on 9 states.

[e] Average is the median for 17 states and the District of Columbia.

[f] Kentucky.

[g] Maryland.

[h] Texas.

[i] Mississippi. (Salary of white teachers estimated.)

[j] West Virginia.

[k] Florida.

[l] Georgia.

[m] Missouri.

[n] $4.44.

creased at a phenomenal rate since 1930 and especially since the close of the Second World War. In 1946 there were some 57,000 students enrolled in Negro colleges.[1] It is a simple, but most impressive, fact that the progress of the Negro in the United States in the last eighty-five years has probably never been equaled by any other people in anything like an equal period of time in the whole recorded history of mankind.

Needs in the Education of Negroes. The kind of education needed by Negro children, youth, and adults is the same kind that has been stressed throughout this book and especially in this chapter. Negroes are American citizens, steeped in the American tradition, and they have unique cultural contribution for American life that should be honored and strengthened. America is the only country which they know or to which they have ever owed allegiance. In that sense no group in the United States is more thoroughly American. Their value, rights, and privileges should be counted second to none. The equal chance and equal recognition is their great need and desire.

Among the most urgent needs in the education of Negroes, the following are generally recognized:

1. Increased state appropriations for equalizing educational opportunities, with specific safeguards in the states that maintain separate school systems to see that the Negro schools get their equitable share of the funds in proportion to need.
2. Federal appropriations to the states for equalizing educational opportunities, with ample safeguards to guarantee that the minorities in separate schools get their fair share of funds. The responsibility of the Federal government for a sizable share in the support of education for Negroes is clear. The Negroes were given their freedom and made citizens by the United States Constitution. They are guaranteed equal protection of the laws, which means equal privileges. The Federal courts have now undertaken to enforce the constitutional requirements. It is the duty of the Congress to make it financially possible to conform to those constitutional requirements.
3. Within the local school administrative units the school boards have a moral as well as a legal obligation to equalize educational opportunities. Most of them have met that obligation only indifferently.
4. There needs to be a vast expansion in high school facilities.
5. Far more extensive facilities for pupil transportation of Negro pupils should be provided.
6. The instructional opportunities for Negroes should be attuned to their peculiar needs. Among those needs that are now most poorly met are (*a*) adequate instruction in the proficient use of the English language; (*b*) instruction to meet the health, dietary, and living standard deficiencies faced by many Negroes in their poverty; (*c*) instruction and activities that will increase the Negro pupils' self-respect and confidence; (*d*) more attention to strengthening the cultural contributions of Negroes to American life; (*e*) more attention to the history of the contributions of Negroes in

---

[1] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistical Summary of Education in the United States, 1945–1946," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*. Washington, D.C., Chap. I, p. 30.

many fields in the life of our country; and (*f*) far more vocational educational opportunities both of general and technical types.

7. With respect to attitudes toward and understanding of the Negroes and their problems, there is need for a great reformation in the instruction of white pupils. Instruction in and guided opportunities for learning fair play, courtesy, human understanding, and cooperation should be accepted as useful roles in schools and classes for white pupils.

Education of Indians. The welfare of Indians, including their education, in the United States, comprises one of the most exclusively Federal problems in the nation. Even if there were no written treaties and laws on the subject whatsoever, the moral obligations of the people of the United States for the welfare of the natives who originally owned all the country would be great indeed.

There are approximately 350,000 Indians who are wards of the United States government. The annual rate of increase of the Indian population between 1930 and 1939 was 1.2 per cent, about twice that of the other United States population. In 1930, there were 739 Indian children for every 1,000 adults twenty to sixty-four years old, as compared to only 461 for the rest of the population of the United States.[1]

The Indians are divided into about 200 tribes, and they speak more than 55 distinct languages.[2] The only common language is English, except in the Southwest, where Spanish is used to some extent. However, two facts are common to nearly all the Indians: they are a rural people largely dependent upon some type of agriculture; and they live where white men placed them. With but few exceptions, the economic bases of Indian culture were destroyed by the advent of the white way of living.

Five general groups of Indians in the United States may be designated:[3] (1) the Oklahoma Indians, who constitute about 28 per cent of all Indians in the United States; (2) the Pueblos, Hopis, Zunis, Pimas, Navajos, and Papagos of the Southwest; (3) the Indians of the North Central region, the most numerous groups of whom are the Chippewas and the Sioux; (4) the Indians of the Northwest; and (5) the so-called "landless Indians" of California and Nevada.

Federal Responsibility. The responsibility of the Federal government for the education of Indians has its origin in the history of the relations of the government to the Indians. Ownership of land among Indians was originally and traditionally tribal. The Federal government acquired the title to Indian lands by treaties, the Indians retaining the right of occupancy of all lands not included in the various cessions. By 1887 nearly all the Indians had been confined to reservations and were under the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States.[1]

---

[1] Blauch, Lloyd E. *Educational Service for Indians.* Staff Study No. 18. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1939, pp. 4–5.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 6–8.

The General Allotment Act of 1887 provided for breaking up the reservations and allotting a piece of land to each Indian, whether he wanted it or not. The land left over was sold, and the proceeds were placed in trust by the government for the benefit of the Indians. The whole idea was to break up the Indians' traditional way of life and convert them to the white man's "civilization." The tragic result was that the Indians could not make the adjustment, and a great part of the reason for this was the lack of a supporting policy of education.[2]

The Wheeler-Howard Act of 1934 repealed the allotment plan of 1887, and tribal ownership of land was restored. Provision was made for the organization of tribal self-government under Federal supervision. The basic principles of the new program are (1) to protect the Indians' property rights, (2) to enable Indians to support themselves, (3) to enable them to build on their own cultural inheritance in adjusting to modern civilization and to become eventually independent of Federal guardianship. Education has necessarily been given a prominent part in the new plan.[3]

An Example of Unmet Needs. In spite of the new program for the Indians' welfare, there is still much to be done, as is illustrated by the Navajos of New Mexico and Arizona. In 1870 the United States entered into a treaty with the Navajos. It was agreed, among other things, that the Navajos would stay on their vast reservation of exceedingly poor land and compel their children to attend school, and that the United States would provide a schoolroom and a teacher for each 30 Navajo children six to sixteen years old who could be compelled or induced to attend school. In 1946 there were 21,000 children of school age, but only 6,000 were in school. There were not even enough facilities or teachers for that number. Navajo land will support only 35,000 of the 55,000 population. Thus a large migration of the Navajos into the white man's world seems most probable. The needed adjustment to the land or to the world into which they migrate cannot be attained without adequate schooling.[4]

Federal Programs of Indian Education. Little attention was given in the early republic to the education of the Indians. From 1819 to 1873, Congress appropriated $10,000 annually for the purpose of instructing Indians but for the most part their education was left to the mission schools, some of which were subsidized by the government. Later some of them received formal contracts and became known as "contract schools."[1]

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 10–19.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 19–21.

[4] Sanchez, George T. *The People.* Department of the Interior, U.S. Indian Service. Lawrence, Kan.: Haskell Institute Print Shop, 1948, pp. 13–51.

In 1870, an appropriation of $100,000 was made for the support of industrial and other schools among Indian tribes not otherwise provided for. By 1887 the annual appropriations amounted to $1,226,415.[2] In 1945–1946, the Federal appropriation amounted to $9,847,243.[3]

After 1878 the nonreservation boarding school became an important feature of educational work. It was thought that children could be best educated in ways of white men by separating the children from their parents. When the children graduated, they were expected to find employment in white communities or on the reservations.[4]

About 1890, the Indian Service began to use the public schools for the instruction of Indian children.[5]

During all these developments the number of day schools on Indian reservations increased constantly, as did the total enrollment of Indian children in all schools. In 1938 the number was estimated at about 65,000. It was estimated also that at that time some 10,200 Indian children six to eighteen years of age were not in school at all.[6]

At the present time, the program for the education of Indians includes the following features: (1) public schools which the Federal government aids with the payment of tuition; (2) community day schools operated by the Federal government as community centers; (3) reservation boarding schools; (4) contracts with mission, private, and state schools; (5) assistance to individuals for obtaining vocational and higher education; and (6) educational work of the various divisions of the Office of Indian Affairs.[7]

The new education program since 1934 to which the Federal government has pledged itself seeks to make a contribution to the fundamental needs of the Indian. Paramount among these needs is training of the Indian in economic self-sufficiency and use of his own resources. The educational program has become definitely vocational in nature, designed to develop a generation of young Indians who know the opportunities available in their reservation communities and who have the attitudes and skills essential to creative living. It is also based on the philosophy that Indians should govern themselves and determine their own lives.[8]

---

[1] Blauch, *op. cit.*, pp. 32–33.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 34.

[3] U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

[4] Blauch, *op. cit.*, p. 34.

[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 34–35.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 49.

[7] *Ibid.*, pp. 48–49.

[8] *Ibid.*, pp. 46–47.

Education to Meet the Needs of the Indians. In view of the economic and social situation of most of the Indians of today, the educational program to meet their needs, in addition to including the education needed by all American citizens, should include special facilities for and emphasis upon the following:

1. Health, including instruction in desirable health knowledge and practices and availability of medical services.
2. The English language, especially in its spoken form.
3. The written form of certain native Indian languages.
4. Instruction in the Indian arts and crafts, needed both for perpetuating the Indian's culture and for increasing his income.
5. Instruction in Indian history, including the Indians' cultural and economic contributions to American life.

The organization, administration, and financing of education for Indians pose certain important problems. Perhaps the most important is the development of the Indian school into a complete community center for both children and adults. This consideration should have a marked effect on the consolidation of Indian schools. There is some evidence that the schools on some of the reservations have been overconsolidated. There is probably no one type of school that will serve the needs of the Indians. There seems to be a special need for some combination day and boarding schools. Many Indian children should attend regular public schools, but when they do the public schools have an obligation to adjust their programs to meet the peculiar needs of the Indian pupils. The whole program calls for teachers specially trained for the job of teaching Indians and for adequate supervisory and administrative services. The financing of the program is clearly a moral and legal responsibility of the Federal government.

Education of Spanish Americans. In the Southwestern states—Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico especially—in southern California, and in some other states to a lesser degree there is a high proportion of Spanish American people. Some of them are of recent Mexican origin, but a majority are native-born citizens of the United States. Most of them, but not all, are in rural areas. Unfortunately, there are scarcely any statistical data for either the general or the school-age population of this group. They are, however, among the people at the lowest level of economic welfare and educational opportunity. They suffer from all the ills of other disadvantaged groups in American agriculture, a large proportion being illiterate or nearly illiterate. They furnish a large proportion of the migratory agricultural laborers already discussed. While they are not subjected to legal segregation in schools, the practice in many communities, especially in

Texas, is just as effective as if it were legally required. That condition, however, is not found in New Mexico.

Spanish is the "home language" of most Spanish Americans and has been so under the Spanish, Mexican, and American flags. It is still, along with English, the legal language of New Mexico. The extent to which Spanish is used, however, is quite variable. Some groups of Spanish descent do not use it at all. Other groups do not speak English at all.

These people have farmed for their own subsistence on their own land for hundreds of years. They are deeply rooted in their soil, but the pressures of increased population and of commercial enterprise have brought about an increasing problem of overpopulation on the productive land.

The White House Conference on Rural Education perhaps summarized the educational problems of the Spanish American minority as well as it can now be stated:[1]

> The causes and effect of both the social and economic underprivilege of this southwestern minority are products of circumstances that vary from region to region and from community to community, often even where the communities are only a few miles apart. Folkways, geographic isolation, seasonal employment (migratory labor), foreign home-language, poverty, and other characteristics and circumstances of this minority group raise educational problems in varying degrees in each community. To these problems the schools should respond with appropriate teacher education, curriculum, and administrative adjustments. In no sense, however, must the education of the Spanish-speaking child be permitted to deviate basically from that of other American children of the same community. There should be no distinctly and peculiarly "Spanish-American" program of rural education. Rather, the rural education that is deemed good for other Americans in like circumstances is good for the Spanish-speaking child. However, through careful analysis of his socio-economic and cultural status, it may be discovered that he offers both opportunities and obstacles to which the school should make appropriate response. The heterogeneity of this minority group demands that this response be correlated to the varying conditions of each region and of each community. To this end, educators in the areas where the minority group represents a significant "problem" should be offered that training which will prepare them to understand and meet the special demands made by the minority upon the schools of their respective communities.

Some Conclusions. The United States continues to produce a million or more illiterates each year and several million more persons who are ill-educated and woefully underschooled. In the case of migratory agricultural workers, the children are in most cases getting even less education than their parents received.

Where the greatest needs for educational improvement are is definitely known. It is also known that most of the severe economic and social problems of the nation come from the lowest third or perhaps even the lowest tenth of the population, but that knowledge has had too little to do with public policy.

---

[1] Department of Rural Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 176–177.

If the states would but seriously set about placing a floor under educational opportunity, the problem could be solved in a reasonable time. But no state has actually faced realities. More money is provided, but it is too often concentrated on children who already have the most and on communities that are able to do still more.

The Federal government is almost totally devoid of any constructive action to help solve the real problem. So far as education for the most disadvantaged people is concerned, the farmers are the worst offenders. They ought to face realities, help to control child labor in agriculture, and insist on decent compulsory attendance laws. On the contrary, they have been the obstructionists.

In short, we know what to do. But our professions far outrun our performances.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. From sources on the history of public education in the United States and any state history of public education available, trace the development of the concept of education as an essential function of a democratic government and the concept of equality of educational opportunity. To what extent does the concept of equality seem to have been realized?

2. Make a detailed study of the school districts or attendance units of a selected county with respect to the principal statistical measures of educational opportunity. What evidence of discrimination or neglect do you find? To what extent do the variations seem to be associated with a "caste" system, social, economic, linguistic, or other?

3. Select a county in which an appreciable number of migratory agricultural workers are employed and make a study of the following matters: (*a*) The number of children involved, (*b*) school attendance of the children, (*c*) educational attainment of the children, (*d*) educational attainment of the parents, (*e*) school facilities available for such children, (*f*) attitude of the regular residential children toward the migrant children, (*g*) attitudes of teachers and administrators, (*h*) attitudes of the people of the communities, (*i*) the policy of the state in matters of compulsory attendance and finance. Draw up a program for meeting the problems you find.

4. What are the historical, economic, social, and political bases of the problem of equal educational opportunities for the Negroes? Pose and answer the same questions for Indians and Spanish Americans.

5. What policies and programs are necessary to obtain equal educational opportunities for the disadvantaged groups in America?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

"Availability of Education in the Separate Negro School." *Journal of Negro Education.* Yearbook No. XVI, Vol. XVI, No. 3, Summer, 1947, pp. 263–479.

Blauch, Lloyd E. *Educational Service for Indians.* Staff Study No. 18. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1939.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association. *Rural Schools for Tomorrow.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1945.

———. *The White House Conference on Rural Education.* Washington, D.C., 1944. See especially Report of Group VII, "Education of Minority and Special Groups in Rural Areas," pp. 172–180.

Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association. *Americans All.* Washington, D.C., 1942.

Gaumnitz, Walter S. *Education in the Southern Mountains.* Bulletin 1937, No. 26. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, 1938.

Sanchez, George T. *The People.* Department of the Interior, U.S. Indian Services. Lawrence, Kan.: Haskell Institute Print Shop, 1948.

Taylor, Carl C., *et al. Rural Life in the United States.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949. See the following chapters: Ensminger, Douglas. "The Rural School and Education." Chap. 6, pp. 92–115. Raper, Arthur F., and Taylor, Carl C. "Landowners and Tenants." Chap. 15, pp. 264–280. Ducoff, Louis J. "Farm Laborers." Chap. 16, pp. 281–294.

U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Farmers in a Changing World.* Yearbook of Agriculture. Washington, D.C., 1940. See the following chapters: Ham, William T., "Farm Labor in an Era of Change," pp. 907–921. Embree, Edwin R. "Education for Rural Life." pp. 1033–1040.

Vance, Rupert V. *All These People.* Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1945.

Wale, Fred G. "Conservation of Human Resources," in *Conservation Education in Rural Schools* (Effie G. Bathurst, ed.). Yearbook 1945. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, pp. 73–81.

Wilkerson, Doxey A. *Special Problems in Negro Education.* Staff Study No. 12. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1939.

CHAPTER 17

THE COMMUNITY-CENTERED SCHOOL

A development in recent years that holds much promise for helping to adjust education in rural areas to life needs is the community-centered school. This chapter undertakes to describe the underlying concept of this type of school, to illustrate various programs that have been or may be developed, and to show the opportunity for leadership in bringing school and community into fruitful cooperation.

What It Is. The community-centered school is a "school that is intimately connected with the life of the community, serving as a center for many community activities, and utilizing community resources in improving the educational program."[1]

Such a school is one that is aware of the educational resources of the community in which it is located and recognizes its obligations to serve the community in ways other than the formal instruction of children and youth. Briefly stated, the community-centered school may have one or more of these characteristics: it uses community resources and problems in vitalizing its curriculum and teaching; it makes its facilities available to community groups and to the community as a whole; so far as its resources permit, it aids in meeting community needs; by its program it creates a more intelligent understanding of the school's role in community life and so creates better support, financial and otherwise, on the part of the community; and it seeks to improve the community not by taking responsibility for community action but by raising the level of ideals as to what a modern American community may be.

Sometimes the community-centered school is called the "community school"; sometimes its program is called the "school-community program" or the "community-school program." While community interaction is emphasized, it should be recognized that such a school does not aim to prepare pupils for life in one particular community only. It does make for an education that will be more effective for living in that community. It is also true that for those who migrate to other communities such experience is excellent preparation for adjusting to life elsewhere.

---

[1] Good, C. D. (ed.). *Dictionary of Education.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1940, p. 87. See the term "community school."

The Underlying Theory. We are coming to recognize that schooling is only one part of education. Education is a continuous process and includes all kinds of experiences that influence the development of people, young or old. While the school is probably the most important educational agency, it shares responsibility in the community with other agencies, such as the home, the church, the playground, and the theatre.

As we think of an education that prepares for life, it becomes important that we recognize and utilize the influence that the community with all its forces has upon the school. Likewise, this concept recognizes the influence that the school has upon the community and its mode of living. These influences of the school upon the community and of the community upon the school go on whether we recognize them or not. However, the influences for good may be better utilized, and those that are not good or are questionable may be better controlled if both school and community are aware of their mutual responsibilities and obligations.

The community-centered school is an important means of implementing this theory. While the problem of school-community interaction exists in both city and country, the need for developing a community-centered school is probably greater in the country. This is true partly because the average rural community has fewer services, whether provided by government or by private agencies, than the city. As the administrative school district and the rural community described in Chapter 5 come to occupy the same geographic area, socioeconomic forces tend to make more feasible an effective school-community program.

The idea is not new. In its essentials it is as old as the race. It now comes to the fore as a means of making the school in our modern complex society a more vital and functional institution rather than a mere agency for academic and formal instruction.

Development of the Community-centered School. The American school of colonial days was really an extension of the home. In the school building were commonly held the town meeting and other district activities. Frequently, it was the place where the community came to play and where it had many of its social affairs. Sometimes it was used as the place of worship.

As time went on, the community influence of the school seems to have deteriorated.

> With the rapid growth of urban life in the United States, the schoolhouses fell into general disuse for community purposes. There is some evidence, however, that the Lyceum and the numerous other societies for the diffusion of knowledge which sprang

> up during the first quarter of the nineteenth century—mercantile associations, teachers' seminaries, literary societies, book clubs, and societies of education, occasionally utilized the schoolhouses for their meetings.[1]

One can easily imagine that during the nineteenth century, therefore, a few alert communities began to see an opportunity for using the school for other than its primary purpose, the formal instruction of children and youth. Indiana, in 1859, seems to have been the first state to pass legislation relating to the extended use of public schoolhouses.[2] By 1881, according to Glueck, 12 other states had passed comparable legislation. There is not space here to trace in detail the development of this concept, but the highlights of its development are presented. The reader who is interested in a more intensive study of the problem is referred to the volume by Glueck, published in 1927, and to a more recent analysis by Jafferi.[3]

Chapter IV of Jafferi, entitled "Community School Ideology and Concepts," calls attention to certain persons and groups that have been influential in promoting the concepts of the community-centered school. Jacob Riis is credited with being one of the first in our own generation to recognize the importance of the school as a social center. Scudder, in 1894; Gove, 1897; Lang, 1902; Eliot, 1903; and Perry, 1910, were among those to emphasize this concept. In 1902, John Dewey[4] stressed four new demands made on the school to meet contemporary needs: the need for social contacts; the need for developing cultural values, and particularly human understanding; the need for training in technical arts and skills; and the need for additional education.

> His was a vision of an expanded concept, in which the school had to undertake an educational function relevant to the contemporary needs of the community, and to "operate as a center of life for all ages and classes." Although his concept could not be realized in practice immediately, it gave great impetus to the movement and provided a sound basis for its future growth.[5]

In 1911, the National Society for the Study of Education devoted its yearbook to the school as a community center, one part dealing with the city school, the other with the rural school. In the same year the National

---

[1] Glueck, Eleanor T. *The Community Use of Schools*. Baltimore: The Williams & Wilkins Company, 1927, p. 13.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 14.

[3] Jafferi, Ghulam-Hussain. *A Suggested Plan for Operating the Rural Schools in Sind (Pakistan) as Community Schools*. Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1950.

[4] Dewey, John. "The School as a Social Center." *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, National Education Association*, Vol. 41, 1902, pp. 374–383.

[5] Jafferi, *op. cit.*, p. 172.

Education Association adopted a resolution supporting the idea of making the school a community center.

One factor in the development of this concept appears to have been the recognition that the school plant should be more widely used. As Jafferi has aptly phrased it, "here were the needs, and here were the schools lying vacant for most of the time when the people needed them. The schools had the facilities; they belonged to the people; why not use them?"[1]

Glueck attributes much of the leadership in the early part of the present century to Edward J. Ward. While Ward was pastor of a church in Silver Creek, New York, he had shown the possibility of using the manse as a sort of clubhouse for social and recreational activities by the community. In 1907, Ward moved to Rochester, New York, and was responsible for the development of a community program utilizing the schools as centers. In 1909, Ward was invited to the University of Wisconsin to organize school centers throughout the state. From his activities in that state "grew the Wisconsin Bureau of Civic and Social Center Development which by personal visits and conferences and through correspondence placed the services of an adviser at the disposal of the local communities of the state who wished to utilize their school houses for community purposes."[2] In 1927, Glueck made a study of the extent to which schools were being used for community purposes. She found 722 cities, townships, and villages reporting such use. Of these, 67 per cent were in communities having a population under 5,000, 47 per cent being in communities under 2,500 population.[3]

The First World War, by emphasizing the importance of the community in developing democratic life, contributed considerably to the idea of a community-centered school. So, also, did the depression of the early and middle 1930's. Since then important pronouncements have been made by the Educational Policies Commission, 1939, the Rural Educational Policy Committee, 1940, the White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, and another publication, in 1944, of the Educational Policies Commission entitled *Education for All American Youth.*

The increasing interest in the conception of a school community program may be seen in the number of articles devoted to this subject. Olsen found 37 articles published in the years 1930 to 1933; 118 in 1934 to 1937; and 402 in 1938 to 1941. While no tabulation appears to have been made since 1941, there is no question but that the number of publications has greatly increased.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 179.

[2] Glueck, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 36–40.

Types of School-community Programs. During the last couple of decades we have devoted considerable energy to the discussion of the desirability of such programs, and some progress has been made in implementing them. Kullman[1] has classified existing programs into four types, and this classification will be used for presenting illustrations of such programs.

1. *The School Expands Its Use of the School Plant beyond the Housing of the Traditional School Program.* The American school has always encouraged parents and other adults to visit the school on special occasions. In the rural school of fifty years ago, the "last day" of school was often made a means of attracting as many adults as possible. Fairs and exhibits have had a similar purpose. In more recent years, as larger schools in the rural areas have developed, adults have been brought to the school as spectators of athletic contests, dramatic presentations, and moving pictures and, not infrequently, as listeners to concerts and important public speakers.

More and more, however, the school is undertaking to bring adults in as participants rather than as mere spectators. Increasingly, courses taught by formal and informal methods have been made available—Americanization (for new citizens); economics (including such specific offerings as factors affecting price trends, international trade policies, and a sound tax program); government (including local problems of governmental organization and good citizenship, trends in Federal control, and world cooperation); general cultural subjects (foreign languages, English, music, art appreciation, and the like); vocational instruction (*e.g.*, farm machinery repair, fruit growing, home decoration, child care, consumer education); and hobby classes (in industrial arts, drawing and painting, dramatic production); and the like.

A recent New York law illustrates the trend toward recognition of adult education as a function of the public schools. This state allows the local system $2.50 per forty-minute class period for the payment of instructors and is liberal in the interpretations of what is acceptable for state aid purposes. This may include any academic subject, a hobby class, swimming, driver education, lip reading, and the like. In fact, it will approve almost any activity that is not merely entertainment or social. Any group with an average attendance of eight will be approved. There is also great flexibility as to the number of periods that will be accepted for state reimbursement. Approved classes must be administered by local school authorities.

The public forum is a type of adult education that, through discussion of matters of community interest, stimulates community action. In the Allen-White High School in Tennessee, citizens meet and discuss problems common to all, one purpose being "to organize people into improvement units—improving their homes, their farm buildings, their gardens, and learning how best to care for their livestock and their own health."[1]

---

[1] Kullman, Nathan E. *School Plant Facilities Desirable for Community Use in a Community-school Program.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1950.

The school may make its plant available to various groups, such as the scouts, the American Legion, the farm bureau, and the like. The Spencer, New York, Central School, with an enrollment of about 300, is used for meetings and dinners of Rotary and Kiwanis; church harvest suppers; meetings, rehearsals, and productions of the adult dramatics club; parents' club; girl scouts, boy scouts, and Brownies; International Harvester party; and the like. During the first three months of the year 1949–1950, 27 different groups used the school building 108 times, and approximately 2,400 persons attended.

The school building is sometimes, but apparently not frequently, used to house other community officers or agencies—the county nurse, the county welfare unit, the public library, or similar governmental agency. In Wauzeka, Wisconsin, an addition to the school, built from village, school, and private funds, is used to house the village offices.[2]

In the school may be located a nursery school, vacation school, or other out-of-school program. In Planeview, Kansas, for example, a need was seen "for constructing a year round continuation school program and a summer vacation program." Over a period of several years were offered physical education activities; dances for high school pupils; arts and crafts; remedial instruction in elementary school subjects and make-up opportunities in high school subjects; private instruction in band and orchestral instruments with the instruments loaned by the school; and the use of the school library. Even after Federal aid to this war-housing area was discontinued, citizens contributed funds for the program. There were thus provided during what usually would be nonschool hours "opportunities for scholastic, social, and cultural developments not usually available."[3]

Almost universally, PTA organizations have their regular meetings in the schoolhouse. In the Frost community school of Texas, the buildings are used by the boy scouts, the girl scouts, the Future Farmers of America, 4-H groups, soil conservation groups, and the like. The Hanson High School of Kentucky is used by the Farm Bureau and other organizations.[4]

---

[1] McCharen, William K. *Selected Community School Programs in the South.* Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948, pp. 17–24.

[2] Craig, H. C. "Wauzeka's New Community Building," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 115, No. 3, p. 48.

[3] Scott, Carrie M. "Extended Educational Programs in a War-housing Area." *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 115, No. 3, pp. 26–28.

[4] McCharen, *op. cit.*, pp. 54, 55, 64.

2. *The School Utilizes Resources in the Community.* Within the community are resources or lacks or problems that may be used to advantage in almost every phase of the school program for vitalizing the school curriculum. In fact, the community may, when properly utilized, become a sort of laboratory for the school.

In the Burning Bush, Georgia, community, pupils and teachers visited farms and homes and studied health and nutritional conditions, food supply, water supply, and sanitation. They visited dairy farms and other farms where cotton and corn were the main crops, and compared these for investment returns and for soil conditions and effects. Before making these visits the children found out about the farms they were planning to visit, learned about the history, the soil, and the type of farm practice. Each child prepared a question or questions to ask the farmer about something the school wanted to know. On the visit each pupil took notes for use in working out projects in English, art, history, and the like.[1] In a Minnesota school a study of the history of the community introduced the subject of the various national groups living in the community, and encouraged the pupils to discover reasons why these national groups left Europe and why they settled in that particular part of the state.[2]

A functional curriculum in the school naturally leads to the inculcation in pupils of ideals of standards of living that are certain to influence these young people when they become adults. In fact, an improvement in living conditions may take place immediately through the influence that children have on their families. In Bullock County, Georgia, an emphasis on health problems resulted in the reduction of hookworm among school children from 60 per cent to 28 per cent; the immunization of over 94 per cent of the children against typhoid; the vaccination against smallpox and immunization against diphtheria of approximately 90 per cent. At the time of this report there had been no case of typhoid in the community for one year and no case of smallpox for two years. Well-balanced lunches were served in nine of the 13 schools, and the children learned to wash their hands before lunch and to eat in an orderly manner. Septic tanks were installed in 24 homes during one year; four public water supplies were improved; approximately 49 per cent of the rural homes were screened, and 40 per cent installed sanitary toilet facilities.[3] In the Burning Bush community cited above, the children in grades 5 through 7 conducted a community survey studying the community's history, its soils, and the history of land uses and its products. This survey revealed, among other things, that there was a real problem of conservation of the soil; there was need for recreation, particularly on Saturday nights; there was need for the establishment of a telephone system in the community. Each child then selected a home problem to solve, using one of the topics that he had been studying.

---

[1] Johnson, Collus O. *A Partnership in Education.* M.S. Thesis. University of Tennessee, 1948.

[2] Olsen, Edward G. *School and Community Programs.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., pp. 142–144.

[3] Turner, Clair E., Chairman. *Community Organization for Health Education.* Cambridge, Mass.: The Technology Press, 1941, pp. 11–18.

Sometimes adults in the community make important contributions, on a voluntary basis, to the facilities of the school. Thus, in the Friendship community school of Arkansas some of the men cut logs on the school property or donated logs from their own farms, sawed this timber into lumber, and erected an elementary school building and a community canning plant.[1]

3. *The School Renders Community Service beyond Its Traditional Day-school Program.* There are numerous facilities of the school, including both personnel and services, that may be made available to the community.

Vocational counseling is an illustration. In every rural community there are young people who are not as well adjusted vocationally as they should be. These may be either high school graduates or early school leavers. The guidance facilities of the school may render a significant service to such persons, enabling them to reappraise their vocational opportunities, helping them to find new opportunities, and acquainting them with opportunities for securing further education. Apparently not too many schools have yet initiated such a program, but an illustration may be found in the schools of Southern Pines, North Carolina. In this community of about 3,200, the guidance program for out-of-school youth developed as a result of follow-up studies made of graduates and the experiences of the Second World War. The program serves from 15 to 25 graduates and nongraduates a year. The program includes testing for achievement and scholastic aptitude; vocational counseling, including contacts with business and commercial firms in the area; placement services; and follow-up.

What appears to be a promising experiment in providing leadership in this field has been going on in Virginia since 1939. There the State Education Department is offering counseling service to young people through regional offices.[2]

Since 1935 the Van Hornesville, New York, central district has published a mimeographed student paper which is also the newspaper for the community. About 150 persons live in the village of Van Hornesville, and about 1,500 in the total central district. This paper presents a variety of information not only about the school but about personalities and affairs in the community. Naturally, it serves as an important unifying influence in the community. At present, the circulation of the paper is about 225. It is self-supporting through income received from sales and from advertising. Responsibility for it is placed with the class in journalism, and the members of that class and the teachers who have responsibility are excused from certain classes on Monday to help prepare the publication for Wednesday.

---

[1] McCharen, *op. cit.*, p. 50.

[2] "The Consultation Services." *Work and Training*, Vol. 6, No. 2, October, 1946.

Since about 85 per cent of our rural communities do not have public libraries, there is a real opportunity for the school to make its library available to adults or even to develop a combined school-community library. Even if there is a community library available, there is often an advantage in combining it with the school library. Costs of personnel, heating and lighting, books and periodicals may be reduced through cooperation. If a school library does not serve as the community library, it may be the repository of books from the county library. Illustrations of such services are found in Mesick, Michigan, and in Stephens County, Georgia, High School.[1]

Pupils may help in various kinds of group projects significant to the community. During the Second World War we became familiar with the services rendered by pupils through selling war bonds, collecting scrap iron, paper, and the like. In Ellerbe, North Carolina, the pupils started a nursery and transplanted young trees and bushes that they found in the woods. They planted hedges about the school, and later extended their landscaping to the churches and about 250 homes in the community. They built their own tennis court, calcimined the classroom walls, mended the stairs, built bookcases, and put in drinking fountains. With a pride in their school thus developed, pupils have developed a new concept of cleanliness of grounds and classrooms and have put their ideals into effect.[2] In the Wheeler Spring School, a two-teacher school for Negroes in Texas, a community canning plant was built on the school grounds with the help of the boys of the school and the men of the community. A one-acre school garden was then developed to help furnish vegetables for the children's hot lunch.[3] The Bruton Heights School for Negroes of Williamsburg, Virginia, has initiated a number of desirable community activities: a clean-up campaign aimed at mosquito control; home improvement through the provision of screens; painting a church; an emphasis on the importance of fertilizers; improved poultry production, and the like.[4]

---

[1] McCharen, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

[2] Olsen, *op. cit.*, pp. 5–7.

[3] McCharen, *op. cit.*, p. 129.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 35–42.

The village of Greensburg, Kentucky, a town of about 1,200 people, has erected on the school grounds a cannery, which contains a classroom for vocational agricultural activities, in which a food-production course for adults has been offered. Considerable emphasis has been given to poultry raising: the children have learned to identify breeds and varieties of chickens; have learned the value of pure-bred flocks; and have learned how to improve and cull their own flocks and how to care for their chickens.[1]

Many rural communities do not have moving-picture theaters, and as a result, it is necessary to go to another community for this purpose. Here is another service the school may render the community. For many years the central school at Newark Valley, New York, has shown pictures on Saturday night. Attendance averages about 250, approximately 150 being pupils. Admission fees are low because there is no effort to make a profit In fact, the board of education provides funds to cover any deficit, which may in some years run as high as $300.

Recreation is one of the real needs in many rural communities. This may be provided by the community itself, as in Warsaw, New York, mentioned in a later paragraph of this chapter, but the school seems to be in a particularly favorable position to provide the services involved. It already has, in its auditorium, gymnasium, and cafeteria, facilities for dramatic presentations, community concerts, athletic contests by village youths, dances, picture shows, community dinners, and the like. An expanded play field may provide facilities in basketball, volleyball, football, baseball, quoits, and the like not only for children of school age but for older persons as well. Foreseeing developments along this line, the New York State Education Department has prepared a bulletin giving suggestions for laying out such play facilities.[2]

4. *The School Furnishes Leadership for, or Cooperation in, Coordinating a Community Educational Program.* Stephenson, Michigan, a village of about 800, is a part of a community area of 552 square miles serving approximately 7,500 people. Under the leadership of the board of education, a mass meeting made up of representatives of 52 social, economic, civic, and religious agencies was held. As a result of this meeting, a temporary steering committee was organized to write a constitution for a community organization of self-help. Seven study-problems committees were organized to deal with education, health, community services, trade

---

[1] Seay, Maurice F., and Meece, Leonard E. "The Sloan Experiment in Kentucky." *Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky,* Vol. XVI, No. 4, pp. 111–122.

[2] New York State Education Department. *Planning the Outdoor Physical Education Facilites for Central Schools.* Albany, 1947.

and industry, religious life, farm and land use, and home and family living. Cooperating with the local school and community officials have been the State Education Department of Michigan and the Kellogg Foundation. The achievements in Stephenson have been of real significance. The following are examples only of what has been accomplished: new library quarters for the county have been provided; the school curriculum has been enriched; an outdoor camp for school pupils has been established; community work-experience projects have been promoted; a course on home landscaping has been offered; discussions have taken place on many problems relating to home and family living; a summer recreation program with a full-time director has been organized, and a new swimming pool has been constructed; new road signs in the village have been erected; an operetta has been promoted with all churches cooperating; a soil conservation field day has been held; an artificial breeders association organized; a plan for blood-typing all community residents on a voluntary basis has been initiated; the board of education has been encouraged to have all school cooks and bus drivers given a physical examination annually; and a campaign for tuberculosis X-rays has been promoted.[1]

In the East Greenbush Central District of New York State, the PTA took the initiative in organizing a community council. As a result, a continuous adult education program has been initiated with town meetings moving around from center to center; improved telephone and bus services have been secured; dump problems have been handled; the approaches to the central school have been patrolled at night by state police; a community directory listing 3,000 families has been published without cost through the securing of $5,000 worth of advertising. The school offers a course in leadership training. These are just a few of the achievements to date, and plans for new developments are under way.[2]

The foregoing are illustrations, merely, of many ways in which school and community have worked together and may work together for their mutual benefit. The interested reader will find a large number of other illustrations in references given at the end of this chapter. He would do well to watch for descriptions of new programs of this kind as they appear in various educational publications.

Some Administrative Problems. Achievements of the sort illustrated above do not come without careful planning and the exercise of much intelligent leadership.

---

[1] Gucky, Joseph B., and Corey, Herbert. "A Community Organizes to Help Itself." *Educational Leadership*, Vol. VIII, No. 6, pp. 338–392.

[2] Bureau of Adult Education, New York State Education Department. *Adventure in Cooperation; Community Building in a Central District.* Albany, 1949.

Who Should Take the Initiative? There is no one person or organization that should always take the initiative. The program may be begun by a social-studies teacher who has a class write a history of the community, make a survey of it, or map its trade and social areas. It may be done by the teacher of agriculture who offers his shop to farmers for farm-machinery repair or who makes available a short course on fruit raising or on the improvement of the care of livestock. It may be the school nurse who, through her intimate contacts with children, recognizes the importance of providing a dental clinic at the school or having X-ray examinations for tuberculosis made. It may be the home-economics teacher who brings mothers together informally for a discussion of problems of child care or who initiates a canning project or one in home decoration. It may be the guidance counselor who, from his study of dropouts, discovers the reasons for leaving school, whether these reasons are to be found in the school or in the community, and proceeds to offer his services to these young people. It may be the physical-education director who organizes evening classes in volley ball. It may be the teacher of English who interests the women of the community in the formation of a dramatics club.

On the other hand, the person who initiates such a program need not be connected with the school. This was the case in Warsaw, New York, where the mayor saw the need for recreational opportunities and was responsible for developing a program that is really outstanding in that small village of approximately 2,000 persons. It may be a community council, frequently initiated by school persons, as illustrated in Stephenson, Michigan, and East Greenbush, New York.

It is the principal of the school, however, who probably most frequently will take the responsibility for guiding the development of the school-community program. In one sense he is a sort of social engineer who sees the school as a part of the community and recognizes that it is the entire community that makes for the right kind of educational experiences. He may suggest that the school be open in the evening for high school pupils and out-of-school youth in order that they will not care to go to less desirable places. He may suggest that a moving-picture show in the school may cause less migration of an evening to nearby communities. He may see the importance of a comprehensive recreational program. He may say that the community needs a library and, since there is none at present, the school library might well be developed for community purposes also.

The important factor is that someone have the vision; that he have the initiative in trying to make that vision effective; and that he know how to secure the cooperation of others in implementing any desirable program. One person may be the recognized leader, but he alone can never make the program work over a period of years; the cooperation of many persons is required.

Evaluating Community Needs. Formal surveys are sometimes useful. This, for example, was demonstrated in 1948–1949, when the New York State College of Forestry at Syracuse University made a survey of the timber resources of two small communities in the foothills of the Adirondacks. As a result of that survey, definite suggestions are available to the community as to how their timber resources might be improved, and how such as they now have may be made to yield a larger revenue.[1]

Under the initiative of the extension service of the University of Wisconsin, a group of high schools in that state has shown how the schools may make a survey, as comprehensive as is considered desirable, as a basis for determining what are community problems and needs.[2] There is a danger, however, of spending too much time and effort in making an elaborate and scientific analysis of community needs. In many cases these needs are so obvious that surveys are not necessary and direct action is suitable—recreation to keep young people usefully occupied during leisure time; a school-community library to satisfy the increasing demands by people of all ages for access to books in every field.

Directing and Teaching the Program. If the school-community program is small, the principal or a teacher may take over the direction of the program after it is begun. Sometimes there is an alert, interested layman in the community who can do so. Whoever is given the responsibility should have a vision as to the possibilities in such a program, should be willing to learn how to develop it on an effective basis, and should have unlimited patience and ability to work with others.

The teacher in a community-centered program may come from the lay group of the community. For example, there may be someone who has a driving interest in dramatics, and who has perhaps had some little experience in college dramatics. If teachers in the schools are employed—and often these are the ones best qualified—either they should be given additional compensation for the work, or, what is probably better, they should be allowed some freedom from their regular duties for this purpose.

Financing the Program. If the school is used for community purposes, the responsibility for the proper use of the building naturally rests with the board of education and its executive officer. It has been a common practice for the board of education to charge fees for the use of school buildings by other than regular school groups to pay for janitorial services, lighting, and heating. In some types of communities where the school income is low, this may be the only practicable method of financing this program.

---

[1] Davis, J. E., Ferree, M. J., and Stout, N. J. *Toward More Profit from Farm Woodlots.* Syracuse, N.Y.: New York State College of Forestry, 1948 (mimeographed).

[2] Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin. *Community Surveys by Rural High Schools; a Preliminary Report of the Experiences of Several Rural Community High Schools in Wisconsin, 1938–1941.* Special Bulletin, Madison, Wis., 1941.

Making charges is not, however, desirable as a general policy. If a school-community program is educationally sound, then the necessary cost for such a program should be provided by the board of education just as it provides for any traditional educational activity.

More and more states are likely to contribute to the financing of such programs. As has been indicated earlier in this chapter, New York State has initiated a policy of assisting in the adult-education phase of such a program. In Oregon, the costs of lighting, heating, janitor service, and the services of a special supervisory officer for a community center program are paid from school funds. Charges may be made when admission fees are imposed. Payment may also be requested for the use of the gymnasium and other facilities used for physical education.

The Legal Status of School-Community Programs. As of 1948, 36 of our states had passed legislation permitting the use of public school facilities for other than school purposes. In the other states, school boards may usually grant the use of the property for certain community affairs under the general authority given them.[1] Such laws are usually briefly stated and merely authorize the use of schools for community purposes.

In other states, the law is much more specific. For example, the Oregon law states:

> There is hereby established a civic center at each and every public school house within the State of Oregon where the citizens of the respective public school districts within the said State of Oregon may engage in supervised recreational activities, and where they may meet and discuss, from time to time, as they may desire, any and all subjects and questions which in their judgment may appertain to the educational, political, economic, artistic and moral interest of the citizens of the respective communities in which they may reside; provided that such use of said public school house and grounds for said meetings shall in no wise interfere with such use and occupancy of said school house and grounds as it now or hereafter may be required for the purpose of said public schools of the State of Oregon.[2]

In New York, the law authorizes a board of education to permit the use of the school building for such services as public libraries; social, civic, and recreational meetings and entertainments providing these are open to the general public; meetings and entertainments where admission fees are charged and the proceeds are to be expended for an educational or charitable purpose; polling places; civic forums and community centers.[3]

---

[1] Keesecker, Ward W. "State Laws Permitting Wider Use of School Property." *School Life*, Vol. 30, No. 6, pp. 3–7, 24.

[2] *Laws Relating to the Oregon Public School System.* 1946, Section 111–1061.

[3] *New York Education Law*, 1947. Albany: State Education Department, Section 414.

Evaluating the Program. The community-centered school is in accord with our present educational thinking and for this reason is likely to receive increasing attention in coming years. This should not be interpreted as meaning that each and every activity that has been tried out is desirable, but, by and large, they appear to be significant means of improving education in our rural areas. The school-community program, like our concept of education itself, is evolving. We should, especially at this stage of development, think of this program as an experimental one in which each rural community is seeking to understand its educational needs and is utilizing creative leadership in developing a program that will meet these needs.

To this end those responsible for the educational program in a rural community may find it helpful to seek answers to such questions as these:

1. What are the more pressing needs of *our* community in making it a desirable place in which to live—both for ourselves and for our children?
2. Which of these needs may appropriately be emphasized in the school program because they influence the development of pupils in self-realization, in human relationships, in economic efficiency, and in civic efficiency?
3. What specific school-community activities (of which a few are illustrated in a previous section of this chapter) seem most likely to assist in achieving those educational objectives for both pupils and adults?
4. In implementing one or more of these activities, how may we get the wholehearted support of a substantial part of the community? How may we get the necessary funds?
5. How may we evaluate any part of the school-community program as a means of determining whether achievements are worth the effort and the money?

The last question suggests the importance of discovering techniques for measuring scientifically a school-community program. As yet we do not have acceptable measures, but they will undoubtedly be developed as we devote energy to the problem.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. What, if any, specific authority does your state law give a local board of education in developing a school-community program? If there is no specific authorization, are there some general provisions under which the board may act?

2. What, if anything, is your local school doing on any of the types of programs discussed in this chapter?

3. Plan what you believe to be a practicable school-community program for your community in which you deal with the following and similar problems: what are the most pressing needs of this nature; how would you determine those needs; how would you initiate the project; how would you get community cooperation; what plan would you suggest for getting a satisfactory supervisor and other instructional participants; how should any necessary funds be raised?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Butterworth, Julian E. "The Interaction of School and Community in a Democratic Society." *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 14, pp. 230–249.

Community Resources and the Public Schools. Greenville, N.C.: East Carolina Teachers College, Vol. 39, No. 4, 1948.

Conger, N. "They Developed Their Community." *Bulletin of the Oklahoma A. & M. College*, Vol. 47, No. 8, 1950, p. 29.

Eaves, Robert W., Chairman. *Community Living and the Elementary School.* Twenty-fourth Year Book. Washington, D.C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1945.

Fitzwater, Charles O. *Principles Underlying the Community Use of the School in Rural Areas.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1947.

———. *Schools That Count in Rural Living.* Washington: National Education Association, 1949.

Glueck, Eleanor T. *The Community Use of Schools.* Baltimore: The Williams & Wilkins Company, 1927.

Hurlburt, Allan S. *An Analysis of Needs in a Junior High School Community in New Haven, Conn., as a Basis for Developing a School-community Program.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y., Cornell University, 1947.

McCharen, William K. *Selected Community School Programs in the South.* Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1948.

———. *Improving the Quality of Living.* Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1947.

Olsen, Edward G. *School and Community Programs.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949.

———. *School and Community.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945.

Olson, Clara M. *A Community School of Social Action.* Gainesville, Fla.: University of Florida, 1944.

Small Town Manual for Community Action. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1942.

Part Four

WAYS AND MEANS OF IMPLEMENTING THE PROGRAM

CHAPTER 18

LEADERSHIP AS THE BASIC MEANS OF IMPROVING EDUCATION

Many rural communities have forces at work that tend to make citizens satisfied with what they now do educationally. To overcome such conditions, a type of leadership is needed that is democratic in procedure, shows creative ability on the part of the leader, and develops social intelligence on the part of the community. This chapter undertakes to analyze the essential elements in this type of leadership, show the practical importance of understanding these elements, indicate the more important characteristics a rural educational leader should possess, and make some suggestions as to how he may improve his leadership ability.

Conditions That Challenge Leadership. It has been amply demonstrated throughout the preceding chapters of this volume that, while many rural communities have made significant progress toward a desirable educational program, much remains to be done.

Small communities are particularly prone to develop ways of thinking and acting that tend to become habitual. This is partly because there are fewer stimulating factors than in the city—while contacts are easier and more intimate, they are fewer and less likely to be with persons possessing different experiences, backgrounds and points of view; the rural areas have more children and old people and fewer in the active age group; competition is, on the whole, less keen in business and professional life; the tenor of life is slower and, on the whole, less challenging. At the same time there is, in normal periods, usually a smaller margin of income in the community that may be used for undertaking new activities that will add to the satisfactions of living. Furthermore, there has grown up a state of mind that the school of the rural areas need not be as broad in its offerings or as efficient in its outcomes as the school of the city.

Into such an atmosphere—varying in degree and quality from community to community—must come new ideas as to what the school may be and must be if rural children are to have equality of opportunity with other American children. Here is where educational leadership has its great opportunity. While effective leadership must be found on all levels, it is in the local community where there is direct and intimate contact between citizens and the school officials, and where mutual confidence and respect must be developed, that it probably has its greatest challenge. The more static the community, the more serious is the problem of leadership; but the more grave the situation, the greater the opportunity for achievement.

The Nature of Leadership. "The term *leadership* describes a relation between persons. It refers to interplay among those persons. This relation, this interplay, results in one person becoming a leader—for a time or for good—and other persons becoming followers. In short, one person affects another person or a group of persons in such a way that common direction is given to their efforts by this one person."[1]

But there are various kinds of leadership that result in the "common direction" of effort. Leadership based upon *authority*, such as the military leader or the important public official, does that. While the school principal or superintendent has authority to act, he cannot depend upon mere authority to achieve his purposes. Since, in final analysis, his authority rests upon the approval of citizens (both those in his community and those who establish state policy through the legislature), he has the responsibility of trying to bring citizens to accept his conception as to the educational program. Leadership based upon *prestige* (reputation for ability in his particular field) may result in the common direction of effort, but such leadership may not encourage critical thinking on the part of the group. Leadership based upon *custom or tradition* is not likely to be stimulating to the group; it utilizes forces of action without presenting challenges for thinking and acting in a new way. Leadership that takes its cue from what the majority of the group or its more influential members wish without attempting to develop in them greater understanding, is likely to be a timid leadership.

The problems of educational leadership in the community are (1) to know what education can do to improve the quality of living; (2) to visualize the specific elements in a program that will enable the school to do what it ought; (3) to seek the contributions from as many as possible of the thoughtful members of the community in deciding upon a wise course of action; and finally (4) to get the community as a whole to accept the course of action that seems most promising and to participate in making it effective.

---

[1] National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (D. R. Davies, Secretary). *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation.* Report of the Second Work Conference at Madison, Wis. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948, p. 5.

Educational leadership should be democratic and creative and should develop socially intelligent citizens.

> We citizens are responsible for the continuous improvement of our democratic society. Responsibility of us all makes society democratic. Still, leadership exercised by one person does play an important role. But it takes its direction from the ideals of our culture. These ideals underlie the purpose of our society—the cherished fruits of man's bitter struggle for a better life for all men.[1]

Democratic leadership seeks the advice and cooperation of everyone who may make a contribution. It is the opposite of what is connoted by autocracy, oligarchy, dictatorship. Its function is not to pronounce policies and issue orders; it is to raise issues, make proposals, furnish information and ideas, listen and discuss, and by suggestion and stimulation, by praise, by criticism tactfully given, and by patient work with others get them to participate in the formulation of policies and programs of action.

Leadership may be democratic and yet call for a minimum of intellectual activity on the part of the group. Dealing wisely with most of the educational needs of a community requires more than a mere token of reflection. Such a problem as the development of a sound school-community program requires, first, the analysis of the several needs of the community to which education may contribute. It requires also an appraisal of what is now being done along this line, and suggestions as to what is both desirable and practicable in the way of improvement. Such a problem requires real intellectual activity on the part of someone; the larger the number of citizens doing critical thinking on the matter, the more likely it is that a workable and acceptable program will be the outcome. Furthermore, thinking on such matters affecting the entire community introduces a socializing factor; hence, leadership that results in socially intelligent citizens is of real importance.

Creative leadership means that new solutions are sought to problems whether they are old or new. No matter how well an educational problem may now be dealt with, there is always the possibility that better procedures may be used or better solutions may be found. This is one of the finest elements in our American educational system; we are not told by Federal or state authorities just what should be done or how it should be done. Hence, our educational history is replete with the recognition of new needs, the initiation of new programs to meet needs, and new techniques for putting programs into operation. While new ideas involving a technical understanding of education are most likely to develop among those who are professionally trained, hints leading to improved methods or even direct suggestions may come from any alert and thoughtful person in the community.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 5.

The kind of educational leadership needed in our American communities is, then, not only one that is democratic in seeking the participation of all citizens but one that stimulates social intelligence and creativeness. A leader of this kind cannot be a dictator; rather he becomes a social and psychological engineer—utilizing all the human resources of his community.

Essential Elements in This Type of Leadership. Such leadership is not, as already indicated, the reaction of a group primarily to authority or prestige or emotion or custom. It is reaction as the result of thinking on the part of both leader (or leaders) and other members of the group. It is comparable to the process of disciplined thinking engaged in by the individual; but since *group* thinking is here involved, there will inevitably be an interplay of personalities that may affect the nature of the activities needed to accomplish desired results.

What are the essential elements in this process of group thinking?[1] Six may be identified:

1. *There is need for the better adjustment of the community to some situation.* A new school building is needed; the citizens in the community ought to take a more active interest in their schools; too many pupils are dropping out of school before completing the twelfth grade; the social-studies program of the school is found not to prepare young people for citizenship as well as it ought—these are illustrations of problems that need to be met as a community becomes more aware of its educational obligations.

The official leader sees a need usually, but not always, before others in the community see it. He, better than anyone else in the community, should be able to see it because of his superior professional preparation. However, even he may need to analyze the situation systematically to determine how serious it is or to see just what aspects of it most need attention. For example, he wonders why the dropout rate is so high and may well inquire whether the curriculum of his secondary school is failing to provide what these dropouts believe they need. To answer this question he may use a scoring device that measures the strength and the weaknesses of the program.[2] Or, to get a measure not only of the curriculum but of all facilities provided he may score his school by means of the well-known evaluative criteria of the cooperative study.[1]

---

[1] For a more detailed discussion, see Butterworth, Julian E. *Rural School Administration.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926, Chaps. X and XI. See also National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *op. cit.*, Chap. II.

[2] Ransom, William L. "How Well Does Your High School Rate on the Imperative Needs of Youth." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals,* Vol. 33, No. 164, October, 1949, pp. 8–46 (available as a reprint).

If the superintendent has a "hunch" that teaching methods in the elementary school are too formal, he may discover the degree to which this is true by means of Morrison and Ruegsegger's scale for rating elementary school practice.[2] If he fears that his entire system is not adapting itself to new ideals and practices, he may get a measure of this aspect of the program.[3]

These are examples of various kinds of evaluation procedures useful in helping the administrator to define, by accepted professional standards, educational needs that are not likely to be obvious to the average layman. The administrator may, if he has been adequately prepared, be able to devise a method of analyzing the situation where a satisfactory device does not already exist. In making such evaluations he will usually wish various members of the staff to carry a part of the burden in order that they may, through their own participation, realize more fully what the needs of the school are.

2. *The community should be made aware of this need.* Only then will it be willing to give thought and effort to finding a better solution. Sometimes the need is self-evident to anyone, as when the school building burns. But if the building has, over the years, gradually become overcrowded or less suited to the housing of new offerings, a careful, factual study may well be made for the information of the community even though the administrative officer and his board are familiar with the situation. Any collection of data and any analysis made for the purpose of clarifying the extent and the nature of an educational need will commonly be useful in developing in citizens an awareness of the need. The facts thus secured should be presented to the community through the press or special printed report, through public discussion initiated and encouraged by the board of education, the Grange, the chamber of commerce, the woman's club, or other existing organizations, or through special committees appointed to give consideration to the matter. The parent-teacher association is, because of its very nature, in a strategic position to influence the school program. There is tremendous latent energy here that should not be overlooked. What is needed is direction of energy that may come as PTA and school

---

[1] Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria.* Washington, D.C., 1950.

[2] Morrison, J. Cayce, and Ruegsegger, Virgil. *A Scale for Rating Elementary School Practice.* Bulletin No. 1247. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1943, p. 38.

[3] Mort, Paul R., Vincent, William S., and Newell, Clarence A. *The Growing Edge.* New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1947 (mimeographed). Mort, Paul R., and Cornell, Francis G. *A Guide for Self-appraisal of School Systems.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937.

leaders see clearly what this organization may do. Space does not permit further elaboration of this important community resource, but the reader is referred to a few of the available references.[1]

In recent years some school systems have undertaken to enlarge the community's understanding of what a modern school program should be through a new type of school report. This report either takes the place of or supplements the traditional report made up largely of statistical materials. For example, in *Schools Awake* the Van Buren County, Michigan, report for 1942 describes some of the natural resources of the county; gives a brief statement about the growth and the cost of the schools; pictures some unsanitary conditions in buildings; explains how superintendents, teachers, board members, parents, janitors, and supervisors increased their understanding of the needs of the schools; presents plans for improving sanitary conditions; indicates how some of the deficiencies were met and what the costs were; presents pictures showing certain activities that are now carried on in these schools; and outlines a program of community participation for making improvements in other areas. This is a 32-page bulletin, 11 by 13 inches, with numerous illustrations. In this whole project the Kellogg Foundation gave financial and other assistance. The perusal of this report can hardly fail to enlarge the educational horizon of citizens.

Few rural school systems seem to have issued reports of this type, perhaps largely because of the cost. With increasing frequency, city systems are doing so.[2] The planning and publication of reports of this type offer real challenges to those with even a little ingenuity in public relations. Such reports are likely to increase in numbers as it is recognized that reasonable expenditures for keeping the public informed regarding the developments of public education can be justified.

The moving picture is coming to be used as another means. In showing what may be done in school district reorganization, at least two films are now available: *Schoolhouse in the Red*, prepared by the Kellogg Foundation, and *Better Schools for Rural Wisconsin*, prepared by the University of Wisconsin. Films are also available on other aspects of the educational program.

---

[1] Butterworth, Julian E. *The Parent-Teacher Association and Its Work*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928. Rogers, Maria L. *A Contribution to the Theory and Practice of Parents Associations*. New York: United Parents Association, 1931. National Congress of Parents and Teachers. *The Handbook of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers*. Chicago: (request the latest handbook available).

[2] For example: *All the Children* (New York City, 1937); *Making Americans* (Atlanta, Ga., 1947); *Growing* (Wilmington, Del., 1941); *Learning to Live for Today and Tomorrow* (Highland Park, Mich., 1944); *Schools and Community Work Together* (San Diego, Calif., 1947); *Education for Life Adjustment* (Milwaukee, Wis., 1947); *Four Girls and Four Boys* (New York City, 1944); *Preparing for the Future* (Cincinnati, Ohio, 1947); *The School Year in the Headlines* (Battle Creek, Mich., 1949); *Your Austin Schools* (Austin, Tex., 1948); and *Understanding Community Needs* (Camden, N.J., 1948).

Numerous other devices that may be employed and agencies that may be utilized are described by Reeder, by Moehlman, and by Kohn and Wilkinson in references included in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

3. *The community should be encouraged to participate in determining how the need may best be met.* As soon as the community begins to realize that there is an educational problem, the more alert members begin to consider ways and means of dealing with it. Cooperative thinking may well be extended until all interested have an opportunity to participate, even though it is the board of education that, with the advice of its superintendent, makes the final decison. To do this well takes patience and skill, but usually the effort will be rewarded through the more intelligent understanding the community has of the problem as a result of its participation. The ability of the average citizen to make a significant contribution to a problem will, of course, depend upon the complexity of that problem and his own educational understanding. He can help very definitely with such as these: what kinds of vocational education are needed in the community; what may be done to make citizenship training through school and community more effective; how may problems of delinquency be dealt with; what may be done to improve the recreational facilities for young people; what new sources of revenue may be found to meet the increasing costs of education? As he grows in educational understanding through participation, the citizen will be able to contribute to problems that are more complex.

When the problem involves action largely by the school staff—*e.g.*, initiating an elementary program which gives greater emphasis to activity methods of teaching—parents may well be critical of such change unless they understand the reasons. Here the PTA may be very useful.

An illustration of how community effort may be organized to assist in the solution of educational problems may be found in New York. In that state the Board of Regents appointed a committee to make suggestions as to how communities might attack their postwar problems. As a result of the committee's labors a manual has been issued and widely distributed throughout the state.[1] This manual indicates how a committee or committees may be organized and suggests four problems for study: (1) What will the community (city, village, or school district) be like in five or ten years? (2) For this kind of community, what kind of education is needed and for whom? (3) In terms of the kind of education we want, what are the outstanding deficiencies in the present program? (4) How may the community move from where it is to where it wants to be? The manual is so organized as to suggest more specific problems and the data needed to deal with them. Already these committee groups have had an appreciable influence on the development of forward-looking programs of education in several communities, large and small, in the state.

---

[1] *Problems Confronting Boards of Education; a Manual for Community Participation in Educational Planning.* Albany: The University of the State of New York, 1944.

In New York State, rural education has been revitalized during the last thirty years largely as a result of the cooperation of influential farm and professional organizations. Sections in Chapter 1 have described briefly the work of the Committee of Twenty-one (1920 to 1922) and of the recently (1943) organized Council on Rural Education. From the first committee came the central rural school district that now covers about 85 per cent of the rural areas of the state; from the second came the new-type intermediate school district for supplementing the facilities of central and other types of schools. These two committees directed studies that indicated where the educational needs were greatest; they suggested specific programs of action; they defended these proposals before the legislature until satisfactory laws were passed. While the technical work was done by the professional members of these committees and by the research staffs, there is probably no professional person on either committee but would admit that the common-sense contributions of the farm members resulted in useful modifications of the proposals. Furthermore, the members from the farm organizations have been largely responsible for the active support given both programs by the rural people of the state.

Similar illustrations of lay-professional cooperation may be found in other states. For example, in 1947 the report of such a group was made in New Hampshire.[1]

4. *A decision is made as to a desirable course of action.* This is the fourth step in this process of leadership. If the deliberations of the various groups within the community result in one definite conclusion as to the best action, then the board of education and its executive officer can move ahead with confidence. If there is no clear-cut conclusion, then the superintendent with his staff must review the whole situation, seek further counsel from community groups or recommend to the board the action that seems to be most promising. If the issues between two or more programs are sharply drawn, then no action may be wise until a new approach may be found. If the nature of the problem is such that action cannot be delayed, then the board will make the decision, with the advice of its executive officer.

---

[1] Lay-professional Councils on Education. *Lay-professional Council Report to the People of New Hampshire.* Concord, 1947, p. 42.

5. *The decision is translated into action.* In many cases, such as a modified system of promotion, it is probably the professional staff that is most involved but public understanding is essential. In other cases, such as a new curriculum in business education, individuals or groups in the community can be of real assistance.

6. *Finally, there is the evaluation of the decision as implemented.* In this step the community, or groups within the community, will certainly participate—by criticism if by no other method. It is, therefore, good sense to invite this participation so that it is likely to be constructive and sympathetic rather than carping and unfriendly. If the evaluation shows flaws in the decision, then a rethinking of the whole project may be in order.

An Illustration of Leadership in Action. How this type of democratic leadership may be made effective is shown by the following description[1] of what took place recently in a Georgia community:

> I should like to give an instance where cooperative planning and participation on the part of pupils, teachers, and lay people of a community resulted in: (1) saving the accreditation of a rural high school in Georgia; (2) bringing about an improvement in the school plant; and (3) the improvement of instruction and morale in the school itself.
>
> I am a teaching principal in a small rural high school which has about one hundred pupils. The school is a *quasi independent* system; by that, I mean that it is independent in that the town of Braselton owns the physical equipment of the school plant and maintains it; the state and county pay the teachers' salaries and furnish textbooks and transportation. The Braselton School has about two hundred and fifty pupils in grades one through the senior class.
>
> In 1947 the Braselton School was on the warned list of the Georgia Accrediting Commission because of enrollment, school equipment, and sanitary facilities. I suddenly awoke with a start to realize that an institution which had furnished instruction to many boys and girls was doomed, and quickly, if something were not done. The County Board played "hands off," because it did not consider it its job to finance what some referred to as the "Braseltons' School."
>
> You will all agree that we had a problem. The local board of education realized it to such an extent that in a session in May it decided that the sanitary facilities should be corrected at once. So, work was begun that summer on the installation of flush-type toilets and sanitary drinking fountains. The facilities cost about $5500 and were paid for by the local board. The people and pupils would have to help in carrying out the other things, and I believed that, if they were informed of the state of affairs, our fine community spirit could be counted on to come through in this emergency. How to bring this about? What plans were needed? How could one find out about planning with people? I decided that my Alma Mater, the University of Georgia, might have some answers. In June, 1947, I began my graduate work at the University of Georgia in the College of Education and planned my program toward a Master of Education

---

[1] This statement is a summary by Mrs. Annette Braselton, principal of the high school at Braselton, Ga., of a statement made by her at a conference on educational leadership held in connection with the tenth annual Southern States Work Conference at Daytona Beach, Fla., in June, 1949.

degree in educational administration. The great help that I have had from that College has been truly valuable in helping me to learn some of the techniques of how to plan with people and solve problems. . . .

The summer of 1948 again found me at the University of Georgia where I really "dug in" on the problem of school plant improvement. I practically haunted the library to read everything I could about how to redecorate old school buildings. The Braselton High School building had not had a drop of paint on the inside in twenty-one years. The lighting was of the drop-cord variety. There was either too much sun or not enough and there was not a window shade in the building. The vocational people said, "Either put in some electrical equipment in the homemaking department or don't trouble to look for a teacher." We had changed teachers in that department every year for the past five.

By this summer of 1948, by many growing pains, I arrived at and wrote down my own philosophy about the purpose of a school. In my mind the purpose of the school is to improve the living in a community. . . . The physical improvements in the school carried over into the homes of the pupils and their parents, for they saw what they had done and could do by working together.

On the first day of the pre-school week, I discussed with the teachers the problem of school plant improvement and suggested some needs recognized from my study on the problem during the past summer's courses in administration. In this first planning meeting there was a unanimous response on the part of the teachers that something could and should be attempted to improve the school plant, and as a consequence to improve the instruction and health of the children and not to mention teacher and pupil morale. I was designated by the group to present the plan to the community when they met at the school on Thursday of that week.

The community meeting was held in the school auditorium with the chairman of the local board, the school superintendent, and all the teachers taking part in a panel discussion. The participation of the people in the panel discussion was spirited. The outcome of this meeting was a plan to have a community fair and supper, with a baby show and community singing in the evening, on the last Friday in September. . . .

Every month during this past year lay people, pupils, and teachers have been at work on some project to make money. We had the following activities: community fair, baby show, halloween carnival, plays, womanless wedding, basket ball tournament, benefit games, a donkey ball game, movies in the school auditorium, refreshment stand, senior play, benefit suppers, sale of school pins, and a magazine subscription contest. Everybody had fun working together and were particularly proud of the tangible results.

In the homemaking cottage the following equipment has been purchased with school funds and help from the local board: two electric stoves; an electric refrigerator; an electric hot water heater; four maple dinette suites for the unit kitchens; and two new sewing machines for the sewing laboratory. Four new sinks with built-in cabinets will replace the outmoded ones now in use. The girls painted the sewing laboratory a pastel pink and the kitchen was painted white. Fresh new curtains were made from chicken feed sacks. Results? Attractive and efficient!

The equipment in the commercial department was moved to more spacious quarters in the double dressing rooms back of the stage. The former commercial room became the science laboratory classroom, which had formerly been in a damp basement. Every classroom and the upstairs and downstairs halls were painted in pastel shades of green, blue, pink, gray, and ivory with white overhead and a darker shade of a harmonizing color toward the floor. In September, we had invited the lighting specialist and the engineer from the Georgia Power Company to make foot candle tests of each room and draw blue prints of the needs for adequate lighting. This service was free.

Not one penny's worth of labor was hired in painting the building. The teachers and children, using the power company's survey and their own plans and color schemes, painted the rooms themselves. Desks of the chair-type variety were bought for two rooms. Window shades, good ones that roll from the center to the top and bottom, were installed in every classroom. The library and one of the elementary rooms, where the lighting was poorest, were lighted with fluorescent lights. Large bulbs were placed in the other classrooms to take the place of the small "firefly" variety we had had in the past.

Attractive, colorful pictures were placed in frames made and decorated by the children. Potted plants and bulletin boards were added. Old desks were sanded and refinished. New tables and chairs were placed in the lunchroom.

The missionary society, the Woman's Club, and such school organizations, as the Beta Club, F.H.A., 4-H, "The Bee," the school newspaper, were definitely interested and worked on some school plant improvement project that correlated with the activities that were going on in the school and community. Every person in the community was involved in one way or another.

What are some of the results, both tangible and intangible, that have come from this experience? Instruction has been improved due to better arranged, clean, attractive, better-lighted classrooms. Teacher and pupil morale have been improved by the experience of planning and sharing a common problem. The lay people have changed their attitude until now it is *our* school, *our* community, *our* improvement project. Improved community living has been brought about by the boys and girls taking back into their own homes the knowledge of how to paint, repair, and make attractive their own houses and surroundings. Some of the boys and girls became really good painters. In the library, especially, we had a completed job that any painter would have been glad to claim. We were painting until the very last week of school and we shall get back on the job again, come September, 1949. The Georgia Accrediting Commission will give us a clean slate when their next bulletin is published.

Have we finished? No! We have just begun to work. It is *our* school and *our* improvement project and the kids are proud and the people are pleased. Could any one—pupil, teacher, or parent—have brought about these results? Definitely not! It took community planning and action to put the plans in practice and make the objectives a reality.

Note the characteristics of this leadership situation: the existence of a need; recognition by the people of its significance to their community when their attention was called to it; community discussion, decision, and action. In this situation the decision as to a desirable course of action was not so complex nor so difficult as is often the case; otherwise it illustrates the type of leadership problem existing in every rural community. It shows the importance of having someone who can see the need, who is enthusiastic about meeting it, and who can pass on the contagion of enthusiasm to the community.

Achievement of Proficiency in Leadership Is Not Easy. The analysis of the process of leadership presented above may seem to make leadership deceptively easy. It is not easy for the individual to see a problem, analyze it into its elements, secure data on these elements, and see the significance of those data so that sound conclusions may be drawn. To get effective *group* thinking is much more difficult because of the many different personalities with their personal interests, their prejudices, their habitual ways of thinking, and other characteristics that are involved. However, a recognition that there are essential elements in leadership of the type here being considered is of real value. It makes leadership seem less of a miraculous process and more of a rational activity such as characterizes other problems of social relationship and action. It makes the leader aware of steps through which a group goes as it deals with a problem. In planning his leadership activities in the community he may ask himself such questions as these: Is the need really a significant one to the community? If so, how may I bring the community to such a realization of this that it will be willing to act? How may I get as many as possible in the community to help us in deciding what course of action ought to be followed? Where a course of action has been agreed upon, what may the community or influential members in it do to put the decision into effect? Can the community or members in it assist us in appraising the results of that course of action?

The alert administrator will grow in leadership ability through experience. Leadership, like most human activities, is both a *science* and an *art*. Science is method; art is effective application of science; *both may be learned*. Science tells us what is good to do; art does it in a superior way. Either without the other is incomplete. While this chapter deals largely with the science of leadership, it recognizes that the art, with all its subtleties of human relationship, is the goal of greatest social significance.

Desirable Personal Equipment of a Leader. The specific methods that will be followed in carrying on the activities involved in each of the foregoing steps in the process of leadership, the degree to which desired results are secured, and the ease with which they are achieved will naturally be influenced by the personal equipment of the leader.

A long list of desirable characteristics might be given. Among the more important are sincerity; integrity; tact (but not the kind that agrees with everyone on everything); persistence (that does not degenerate into mere stubbornness); courage; friendliness; ambition (to promote the welfare of the group rather than his own welfare); imagination (that does not get too far beyond the comprehension of the group); initiative and alertness (that do not develop irritation and suspicion); humor (that enlivens without offending); willingness to listen to anyone who seems to have a worthwhile suggestion; patience; forthrightness (that is not brutal frankness); ability to analyze and to discriminate; intelligence (but a functional intelligence that can adapt available means to the securing of desired ends is probably more significant than sheer intellectual brilliance).

Words, like those used above, that describe traits and characteristics frequently convey different meanings to different people. It may, therefore, be useful to look at certain abilities involved in the process of democratic, socially intelligent, creative leadership. These abilities include a complex of characteristics and knowledges: (1) The ability to get an overall view of the process of leadership and to understand the significance of each step in it. This involves especially the intelligence and the professional knowledge required to analyze the conditions affecting each step and to utilize those procedures that are likely to be most effective. (2) The ability to stimulate the thinking of the group and to secure their cooperation (including such characteristics as imagination, tact, and patience). (3) The ability to create confidence in his (the leader's) capacity to handle the situation in the interests of the group (*e.g.*, friendliness, sincerity, integrity, courage, initiative, and alertness). (4) The ability to be creative. This has high rank. It includes the capacity to see new needs, to envision new methods for meeting needs, but to do so without giving the impression that the leader is an impractical dreamer. To a considerable extent the components of each such ability will vary with the type of problem being considered, the timing of its consideration, and the personalities involved. Leadership is, for that reason, a stimulus to continued analysis —both of oneself and of the situation.

On this as well as on many other aspects of leadership, research is greatly needed. As yet, relatively little has been done.

Leadership Ability Can Be Improved. The person who is born with a high degree of those traits and characteristics that enter into leadership or who has a good balance among them is fortunate. He is a "born" leader more nearly than the one who did not have those characteristics at birth. However, there is no normal person who may not, through self-training, improve his ability in this type of leadership. If he is lacking in tact or in courage or in the knack of getting others to cooperate with him, he may, within the limits imposed by his original ability, his determination to learn, and his success in changing himself, develop his capacity as a leader. To this end the official leader in education would be wise to find in his community a friend who will help him to see himself as the community sees him. The official leader

> . . . may drift along meeting problems involving elements of leadership on an habitual plane, or he may make each situation that arises in his daily work a means for acquiring necessary facts or for gaining new insight into people's instincts, thoughts and responses, or for analyzing his deficiencies for that particular task and overcoming them. Alertness in striving to improve oneself may be a determining factor between marked and mediocre achievement in leadership.[1]

[1] Butterworth, *op. cit.*, pp. 214, 215.

The Madison report of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration includes a tentative check list for evaluating educational leadership that any administrator may find useful for purposes of self-improvement.[1]

The Official Leader Should Be a Real Leader. Under American educational law the board of education is designated to determine the policies of the community and to see that those policies are made effective. Usually the superintendent or principal is the executive officer of the board appointed to advise the board and to carry out its policies. These responsibilities cannot be abrogated. At the same time the board must, in the long run, make effective the law of the state and the desires of the community. Accordingly, the official leader, to make his full contributions, must be also the real educational leader of the community. With his greater understanding of education, the superintendent or principal should be leading his community and his board in improving the school system. Unless he does this, one of two results will follow: the community will remain in a state of educational complacency; or someone other than the superintendent or principal will take over the leadership.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In your school, what are some needs that ought to be met that require the understanding approval of the community? Are there other needs that require only the approval of the board of education and the teaching staff? Are there any that do not require the understanding and assistance of the teachers? Are there any to which it would be desirable for pupils to contribute?

2. Take one of these needs that seems to require community understanding, discussion, and support if it is to be met satisfactorily. Make a plan for getting these. When you have made this plan, note the essential steps that you see and check with those suggested in this chapter. Are there any significant differences between the two? If so, what modification of those outlined in this chapter would you make? Does such an analysis help you to see more clearly the leadership activities in which you need to engage?

3. In carrying on this project in leadership, what organizations in the community do you think could and should help? Might the creation of one or more special groups from among the citizens be desirable? Would you make use of the community newspaper? One or more public meetings? A special printed or mimeographed report? Other means?

4. Assume that there is an influential person in the community who is likely to be opposed to anything done in meeting this need because of its cost, just as he has been opposed to all other improvements. How would you deal with him?

5. Assume that you wish to get the Grange (or any other organization or group) to give consideration to the problem which you are attacking. Make plans for this.

---

[1] National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *op. cit.*, pp. 52–56.

6. As you get into this whole project what do you think to be your greatest weakness? How would you undertake to overcome this?

7. Suppose that, after a few such projects have been carried through, your board and the community develop such confidence in your judgment that they then tend to sit back and say: "It must be all right if he says so." What possible danger to your leadership in later years do you see?

8. Suppose, on the other hand, that even though you are convinced that a certain improvement ought to be made, you realize that the community considers you an educational enthusiast and lacks confidence in your ability to see all the elements in the problem (*e.g.*, the community's ability to pay for the improvement). What would you do?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bogardus, Emory S. *Fundamentals of Social Psychology.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1924, pp. 409–471.

Butterworth, Julian E. *Rural School Administration.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926, Chaps. X and XI.

Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. *Educational Leadership; Progress and Possibilities.* Eleventh Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1933.

Dewey, John. *How We Think.* Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1910.

Follett, Mary P. *The New State.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1918.

Kohn, Laura U., and Wilkinson, Mildred R. *A Publicity Primer for Volunteer Workers.* Washington, D.C.: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1927.

Lindeman, Eduard C. *The Community.* New York: Association Press, 1921, pp. 120–127.

Moehlman, Arthur B. *Public School Relations.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1927.

Mumford, Eben. "Origins of Leadership." *American Journal of Sociology,* Vol. XII, pp. 216–240; 367–397; 500–531.

National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. *Developing Leaders for Education.* Report of the Endicott Conference. New York: School Executive (W. C. Cocking, ed.), 1947 (multigraphed).

——— (D. R. Davies, Secretary). *Educational Leaders—Their Function and Preparation.* Report of the Second Work Conference at Madison, Wis. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.

Ogden, Jean and Jesse. *Small Communities in Action.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

Reeder, Ward G. *An Introduction to Public School Relations.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937.

Sanderson, Dwight. *Leadership for Rural Life.* New York: Association Press, 1940.

Todd, Arthur J. *Theories of Social Progress.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1922, Chaps. 25, 26, 27, 33.

CHAPTER 19

DEVELOPING MORE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The improvement of educational opportunities for the farm and village people in all the 48 states depends upon making wise changes in the organization of school districts. Too many school districts are too weak to do the work required of them and give schooling too skimpy to meet modern needs of the people served. Reorganization of school districts is imperative.

The purpose of this chapter is to tell briefly how school districts came to be what they are; to present the principles and standards that ought to guide school district organization; to take a look at present school districts; and to point out the road to progress in obtaining better school districts.

The Origin of School Districts. The public schools of the United States have developed as local institutions. It has been said that they are more nearly folk-made than any other schools in the world. Certainly they began through the cooperation of neighbors to provide such schooling as they thought their children should have. Actually they began as a function of the town governmental units of Massachusetts. Neighbors were authorized to provide public schools when they wanted them. Since the demands for public schools were not universal, the idea soon developed of permitting neighborhoods within the towns (townships in most states) to set up separate school districts for purposes of raising local revenues and maintaining schools. Thus the system of common-school districts, that is, a district for each school with a board of control and local taxing power, came into being.[1]

As the westward expansion took place the idea of the common-school district went with it. While the development of school district organization was about as varied as the number of states and their individual histories, it is a correct observation that the idea of local control and support of public schools spread from Massachusetts to every part of the nation. Although it has been said that in the South the county became the unit of school organization because it was the principal unit of local government, a study of the evolution of local organization for school purposes does not reveal any such full-grown scheme of things. Schools in the South, too, began as local neighborhood affairs. Through the process of gradual development the schools of most of the Southern states have become to a large extent county-controlled and more highly consolidated than in most other parts of the country.[1]

---

[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration*, rev. ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, Chap. 1, "Origin and Development of Schools," pp. 3–15.

Major Principle Concerning School District Organization. In order to identify the lines of progress in school district organization it will be helpful to examine the major considerations involved in obtaining satisfactory modern educational opportunities. The first principles are concerned with the objectives and program of elementary and secondary education. The major question, in short, is "What kind of schools do we want?" The answer to this question is summarized in Chapter 7.

What is said hereafter in this chapter is based on the assumption that the scope of elementary and secondary education includes the years from kindergarten through at least grade 12 and desirably through grade 14.

Administrative and Attendance Units. A major consideration in the development of satisfactory local school districts (units) is a clear distinction between the local attendance unit and the local administrative unit. The following definitions will help to clarify the situation:[2]

1. An attendance unit comprises the geographical area and its population served by a single school and does not necessarily constitute a local tax unit or have an independent system of local administration.
2. An administrative unit comprises all the geographical area and its population served by a single system of administration, usually possessing powers of local taxation and operating under the control of a local board, and may be composed of more than one attendance unit.

A look at the historical development of the local administration of public schools in most of the states helps to understand the significance of this distinction between administrative and attendance units. In rural and urban areas alike, separate administrative units were early established to control a district defined by the area from which children attended a single school. For each school there was a school board and local powers of taxation. Until about seventy-five years ago that situation prevailed in most American cities. It is still the most prevalent situation outside cities in at least 27 states.

---

[1] Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, pp. 248–1250.

[2] Dawson, Howard A. *Satisfactory Local School Units.* Field Study No. 7. Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934, p. 6.

Gradually, as the shortcomings of that type of organization were recognized, the cities became single units for school administration and the various schools in the city became only attendance units. Under this form of organization, the people of a city participate in the formulation of educational policy and control of the schools through a city board of education, usually elected by popular vote, while their children attend schools located near their homes.[1]

Only in recent years has the type of school organization adopted by cities received much consideration in shaping the administrative structure of schools in rural areas.

It is often mistakenly assumed that in order to consolidate school districts in rural areas all the schools in those districts must be consolidated into *one* central school. That such an idea is a mistaken one is amply evidenced in states where the county is the local unit of school administration. For example, in Maryland, West Virginia, and Louisiana there are often 50 or more schools serving as attendance units under the direction of a single board of education and one superintendent of schools. A similar situation is found in many so-called "consolidated districts," as, for example, in the rural central districts of New York and the reorganized districts of Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, and Washington.

Services Required of Local Administrative Units. It is now generally recognized that many specialized services from the local school administrative unit are necessary to adequate educational opportunities. These services comprehend educational administration, including the selection, retention, promotion, and remuneration of teaching personnel; the continuous direction of curriculum building and adjustment; business administration, including budget making, accounting, purchasing, and contract making; school plant administration, including the planning of school plant facilities, the alteration and adjustment of physical facilities to meet changing educational needs, the maintenance of school property, adequate sanitary upkeep, and the continuous maintenance of physical conditions necessary to the health of pupils and teachers; the supervision of attendance, including enforcement of compulsory school-attendance laws and regulations, social and educational case work, inspection and supervision of employment of children of educable ages, and the keeping of adequate pupil records; guidance, personal, educational, and vocational; psychological and psychiatric services; supervision of instruction, including both elementary and high schools and also supervision of special subjects; health services, including specialized supervision of health instruction, medical and dental inspection, immunization, prevention and control of infectious and contagious diseases, and accident prevention; special services and opportunities for handicapped children; school-community library services, including audiovisual aids and services, and an instructional materials bureau; community recreation; specialized vocational education for youth; and a variety of adult educational opportunities.

---

[1] Cubberley, *op. cit.*, Chap. 6, "The City School District," pp. 70–84.

These necessary services must be performed either by a single local school administrative unit or by some combination of such local units into an intermediate unit. The characteristics of a local administrative unit that can perform the necessary services will be considered in paragraphs to follow. The functions and characteristics of an intermediate unit will be fully presented in Chapter 20.

Local School Units as Related to Communities and Neighborhoods. What are the characteristics of good administrative units and of good attendance units? In the first instance the answer to this question is to be found in what are accepted as the functions of the units and the services they should perform.

But functions translated to technical educational program and services are not the only considerations involved in determining standards of satisfactory local school units. Another valid consideration comes from sociological factors involving communities and neighborhoods. This concept has been developed in Chapter 5. It is sufficient to point out the following fundamental propositions now generally accepted by rural sociologists, educators, and farm and village leaders:

1. No local unit of school administration should be smaller than the real sociological community that supplies pupils for a high school. In some instances, two or more small communities should be included in a single administrative unit.
2. Every clearly identifiable sociological neighborhood should usually have an elementary school. (The exceptions consist of small neighborhoods near to each other that ought to be consolidated for school as well as other purposes.)
3. Every clearly identifiable sociological community should usually have a high school which ordinarily includes all of grades 7 to 12. Under certain conditions, especially in areas of relatively sparse population or where an exceptionally small community is near a large one, the school may justifiably have fewer than 12 grades. (It may be only a junior high school.)
4. If local school administrative units are organized on the basis of sociological units, it frequently will be desirable and necessary to combine two or more such units into an intermediate unit which should be approximately coterminous with the boundaries of a sociological tertiary community.

5. If some existing political subdivision such as the county is adopted as the local school administrative unit, the elementary school attendance units and the high school attendance units should be organized around the neighborhoods and communities, respectively. It is frequently necessary to include in such units parts of adjacent political units.

Size of Satisfactory Administrative Units. These propositions concerning communities and neighborhoods and travel time as related to school organization are in apparent conflict with the idea that the size of an administrative unit or of an attendance unit is a valid criterion for determining a satisfactory unit of school organization. The fact that some communities and some neighborhoods may be too small to afford the number of pupils required for economical and effective administrative or attendance units, as the case may be, really has nothing to do with the validity of standards as to the size of satisfactory local school units. It frequently happens in all social fields that equally valid principles come into conflict at some point and under some circumstances. Such situations call for statesmanlike compromises and that is exactly what should happen in the development and reorganization of administrative and attendance units.

If because of real conditions, and for valid reasons, the standards of size cannot be attained, then the next best thing should be done: the smaller units should be established with the full realization that they can perform the work required of them only at excessive cost of money and human resources. Under the American doctrine of equality of opportunity the excess cost is easily justifiable.

What are acceptable standards of the size of satisfactory local units of school administration? A number of well-recognized studies on this question have been made and published during the last two decades. The standards have been developed both theoretically and in terms of actual conditions in school organization and administration. In either case the fundamental answer has been sought in terms of the functions an administrative unit is supposed to perform, the services and personnel necessary to the performance of the required services, and the cost of those services in relationship to the total budget of the unit. The question is: What is the minimum size of an administrative unit that can economically do the work required of it?

The pioneer study of this problem was made by the author of this chapter in 1934.[1] Later studies were by Briscoe,[2] the United States Office of Education staff of the Local School Units Project and the staff in each of the 10 participating states,[1] Mort and Cornell,[2] and the National Commission on School District Reorganization.[3]

---

[1] Dawson, *op. cit.*

[2] Briscoe, Alonzo Otis. *The Size of the Local Unit for Administration and Supervision of Public Schools.* Contributions to Education, No. 649. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

All the studies reached substantially the same conclusion as that expressed by the National Commission on School District Reorganization after its own study and an analysis of previous studies. The Commission concluded that a satisfactory school district should be at least large enough to offer an educational program beginning with the kindergarten and extending through grade 12; and that it should have at least 1,200 pupils between the ages of six and eighteen and at least 40 teachers. If it has a much smaller number, it can offer a good program only at relatively great cost per pupil. The Commission also concluded that the more pupils a district has up to 10,000, the broader the program it can offer at reasonable cost. If the enrollment is much below 10,000, the district should be associated with one or more other districts in a larger intermediate district in order to supplement its services.

The Commission also pointed out that wherever possible it is desirable that the administrative unit be sufficiently large to permit the offering of a program of secondary education extending through grade 14.

The Size of Satisfactory Attendance Units. The standards as to the size of satisfactory elementary schools, high schools, and junior colleges are also fairly definite and well established through a number of research studies and investigations.[4]

The National Commission on School District Reorganization made the following recommendations:

1. The enrollment in the kindergarten and grades 1 to 6 should be not less than 175 pupils with 7 full-time teachers, a more desirable minimum being at least 300 pupils and at least 12 teachers.
2. The minimum size of a high school, regardless of type or organization, should be 300 pupils with a minimum of 12 teachers.

---

[1] Alves, Henry F., Anderson, Archibald W., and Fowlkes, John Guy. *Local School Unit Organization in Ten States.* Local School Units Project, Bulletin 1938, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1939. Alves, Henry F., and Morphet, Edgar L. *Principles and Procedures in the Organization of Satisfactory Local School Units.* Local School Units Project, Bulletin 1938, No. 11. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1939.

[2] Mort, Paul R., and Cornell, Francis G. *American Schools in Transition.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, Chap. 6.

[3] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 82–88.

[4] See footnotes 1, 2, 3, above and footnote 1, page 329, and the following sources: Brueckner, Leo J. *The Changing Elementary School.* The Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939, p. 257. Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life.* The Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, pp. 220–221.

3. The enrollment in schools which have been organized to provide educational opportunities for persons who have completed grade 12 should be not fewer than 200 pupils with 10 full-time teachers.

With reference to the standards for high schools it is probable that the *desirable* size rather than the *absolute* minimum size should be between 700 and 1,200 pupils[1] with 28 to 48 teachers. It has also been suggested by the Educational Policies Commission in their description of the hypothetical Farmville School District that 80 pupils in grade 13 would be sufficient to offer schooling in that grade. Pupils in grade 14 would go to a neighboring city junior college, with tuition and transportation paid from public funds.[2]

Limitations of Distance and Time. Another principle that has to do with limiting the size of schools and is an important factor in determining the number and location of schools has to do with pupil transportation and the time required to travel to and from school. Except in unusual circumstances, schools should be sufficient in number and so located that elementary pupils will be required to travel not more than forty-five minutes, and high school pupils not more than one hour, each way between home and school.[3]

Present Status of District Organization. From the preceding discussion of characteristics of satisfactory administrative and attendance units and the work they have to do, it is of great importance to know how the present status compares with what would be considered as more or less ideal conditions. A background for that comparison is a description of the types of school district organization.

Types of School Districts. Local school administrative units are of a most complex variety. They differ widely in names and somewhat less widely in powers, duties, and scope of their programs. But for most practical purposes they can be classified as common-school districts, town or township districts, county-unit districts, city districts, high school districts, and community-unit districts. The states can be divided into three classes with respect to their respective prevailing types of school district organization, namely, common-school district, town or township district, and county-unit district, as is shown in Table 36.

All school districts are quasi corporations created by the state as agencies of the state for the operation of schools, which is a state function though performed locally. School districts have only such powers as are

---

[1] Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 220–221.

[2] Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators. *Education for All American Youth.* Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 421.

[3] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 131.

TABLE 36. NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS AND SIZE WITH REFERENCE TO NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED AND SCOPE OF PROGRAM, AND THE NUMBER OF ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS, BY STATES, 1947–1948[a]

State	Total no. of districts	Per cent of districts		No. of districts operating elementary schools only	No. of one-teacher schools[b]
		9 teachers or fewer	40 teachers or more		
Common-district type:					
Arizona	325	60.3	5.8	197	87
Arkansas[c]	424	0	29.6	0	1,517
California	2,349	67.6	9.8	2,073	820
Colorado	1,794	92.4	1.6	1,559	561
Delaware	126	72.2	8.7	92	48
Idaho	648	64.4	3.2	491	225
Illinois[d]	4,100	48.8	7.3	3,249	6,778
Iowa	4,709	89.7	1.1	3,847	5,637
Kansas	5,643	76.6	0.7	3,783	3,090
Michigan	5,434	66.3	2.2	3,543	2,942
Minnesota	7,518	62.8	0.8	4,650	4,421
Mississippi	4,211	88.4	0.5	3,385	1,850
Missouri	8,422	72.6	0.5	7,800	5,272
Montana	1,512	68.7	1.0	1,327	915
Nebraska	6,864	72.4	0.2	4,499	4,516
Nevada	222	75.6	1.4	160	93
New York	4,609	44.9	4.8	2,127	1,498
North Dakota	2,271	99.7	0.3	1,810	2,848
Ohio	1,539	70.2	8.3	505	496
Oklahoma	2,669	84.8	1.8	1,982	1,324
Oregon	1,363	87.3	2.6	816	399
South Carolina	1,680	73.0	3.6	1,233	1,019
South Dakota	3,409	97.0	0.4	3,099	3,402
Texas	4,832	50.5	5.7	2,056	1,200
Washington	584	61.3	12.2	325	167
Wisconsin	6,385	94.0	0.9	4,843	4,475
Wyoming	354	91.5	5.6	247	385
Total	83,996	72.6	2.4	59,697	55,985
Town or township type:					
Connecticut	174	29.3	31.0	84	115
Indiana	1,125	33.8	4.6	300	411
Maine	493	64.7	5.7	276	815
Massachusetts	351	30.2	32.8	119	128
New Hampshire	239	69.4	5.0	150	133
New Jersey	561	30.6	25.8	338	136
Pennsylvania	2,540	55.4	11.4	1,355	2,744
Rhode Island	39	12.8	53.8	10	26
Vermont	268	67.9	3.7	183	568
Total	5,790	48.2	12.7	2,795	5,076
County-unit type:					
Alabama	108	0	77.8	1	1,076
Florida	67	0	89.6	0	420
Georgia	189	0	95.7	1	1,758
Kentucky	246	6.5	56.5	9	3,462
Louisiana	67	0	100.0	0	772
Maryland	24	0	100.0	0	165
New Mexico	104	65.0	24.0	31	241
North Carolina	172	0	93.9	0	612
Tennessee	150	0	71.3	24	2,265
Utah	40	2.5	67.5	0	28
Virginia	110	0	100.0	0	1,178
West Virginia	55	0	100.0	0	2,528
Total	1,332	6.3	78.0	66	14,505
United States total	91,118	70.1	4.1	62,538	75,566

---

[a] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 192; Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, pp. 258–262. Data for some states are estimates based on these two sources. Since this table was originally compiled, more recent data as to the total number of school districts became available (December, 1950). Because more recent data as to the percentage of districts of various sizes were not available, the totals in the table were not changed. The total number of districts in December, 1950, was 84,468. For states in which significant changes had occurred, the number of school districts was as follows: Ark., 421; Calif., 2,111; Colo., 1,282; Idaho, 301, of which 14 were county-unit districts; Kans., 4,524; Mich., 4,860; Minn., 7,117; Mo., 6,267; Nebr., 6,807; N. Dak., 2,194; Okla., 2,177; S.C., 1,294.

[b] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

delegated to them by the state and the necessary implied powers growing out of those delegated. School districts can sue and be sued, make contracts authorized by law, employ personnel, and operate schools in accordance with state requirements or permission. A school district has a board of directors (or a trustee as in Indiana), in most cases has power to levy local taxes for schools, and has to some degree administrative responsibility for schools, the degree usually depending upon the size of the district concerned.

School districts may or may not be dependent upon an intermediate unit of administration, the characteristics, duties, powers, and functions of which are fully discussed in Chapter 20. In general all common-school districts and most community-school districts are under an intermediate unit, and a large majority of city districts are independent of such unit.

A brief statement to identify each type of school district will be sufficient for present purposes:

A common-school district is created strictly for school purposes and is not necessarily coterminous with any other local governmental unit. It is usually small, having only a single school, which in a large majority of cases is a one-teacher school. In the 27 states shown in the first part of Table 36 the common-school district is the typical form of administrative organization for rural schools.

The town or township school district is one that is coterminous with the political town of the New England states or with the political township as in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Indiana. Such districts are quasi corporations for school purposes and are not necessarily a part of the town or township government. In the nine states shown in the second part of Table 36 this type of district is the characteristic form of local school organization.

The county school district is one that is coterminous with the county. Such districts are not a part of county government and are usually wholly autonomous in the administration of schools. County school districts are of two types: (1) the entire county is a school district; or (2) the territory of the county outside independent districts, usually cities of specified sizes, constitute a school district. The county-unit districts are found chiefly in the 12 states listed in the third part of Table 36.

A high school district is one created for the sole purpose of providing high school facilities. It is usually not coterminous with any other political subdivision, but in some instances it is coterminous with a township as in Illinois and Wisconsin, or with a county as in Kansas, or with a city as is sometimes the case in California and Illinois. In all cases such districts are superimposed upon the territory of one or more elementary school districts that operate independently of the high school district.

A community-school district ideally comprises the territory of a sociological community, or in some instances two or more such communities. Such territory usually includes a village or town or city (usually a small one) and its surrounding farm territory and constituent neighborhoods. This is the type of district that most states, except those that already have the county-unit type of organization, are now trying to develop. Even in the county-unit states the trend is toward establishing community high school attendance areas and neighborhood elementary schools.

Number and Size of School Districts. The types of school districts as described above determine to a large extent the number and size of school districts in the respective states.

The data relative to the number of school districts and their size as measured by the number of teachers employed in them are shown in Table 36. In 1950 there were 91,118 school districts of all types in the continental United States. In 1930 the number was 127,000[1] and in 1940 it was 117,000.[2] Thus the number of school districts has been reduced during the last two decades at an accelerated rate. Of course the trend in the reduction of the number of districts has been accompanied by an increase in average size of district.

The following tabulation based on data in Table 36 and data reported by the National Commission on School District Reorganization[3] shows the status as to size and number of school districts in the groups of states classified according to type of school district organization.

27 states having the common-district type of organization:		
Number of common districts	78,592	
Number of city or other independent districts	5,355	
Number of county-unit districts	49	
Total		83,996
Per cent having not more than 9 teachers	72.6	
Per cent having 40 or more teachers	2.4	
9 states having the town- or township-unit type of organization:		
Number of town or township districts	4,303	
Number of city or other independent districts	1,481	
Number of county-unit districts	6	
Total		5,790
Per cent having not more than 9 teachers	48.2	
Per cent having 40 or more teachers	12.7	

---

[1] Deffenbaugh, Walter S., and Covert, Timon. *School Administrative Units.* Pamphlet No. 34. U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). Washington, D.C., 1933, pp. 4–5.

[2] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1939–1940 and 1941–1942," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938–1940 and 1940–1942.* Washington, D.C., 1944, Vol. II, Chap. III, p. 50.

[3] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 258–262.

12 states having the county-unit type of organization:			
Number of county districts		904	
Number of city or other independent districts		428	
Total			1,332
Per cent having not more than 9 teachers		6.3	
Per cent having 40 or more teachers		78.0	
48 states:			
Number of dependent school districts under a county or other intermediate superintendent		82,895	
Number of city or other independent school districts		7,264	
Number of county school districts:			
For high school only	33		
For elementary school only	35		
For both elementary and high school	891		
Total		959	
Grand total of all districts		91,118	

The common-school-district states have the smallest districts, the town- or township-unit states the next smallest, and the county-unit states the largest districts. The county-unit states have thirty times as high a per cent of their school districts with 40 or more teachers (the acceptable minimum size of a satisfactory local administrative unit) as the common-school-district states, and six times as high a per cent as the town- or township-unit states.

In brief, the local school administrative structure of the 27 common-school-district states and of the 9 town- or township-unit states is in need of extensive reorganization. The 12 county-unit states as a group are far more satisfactorily organized than the other states, but even they are not without need of reorganization.

Fully 22 per cent of the units in the county-unit states are too small in the sense that they do not have 40 teachers or more. In some cases there is need for the consolidation of counties for school purposes. In other instances some of the independent districts within the counties ought to be made a part of the county districts. In most cases there is little doubt that municipalities having less than 7,500 population should be integral parts of county school districts.

The Number and Size of Schools. In 1947–1948 there were 163,726 schools in the 48 states, of which 141,318 were for elementary grades and 22,408 for high school grades. Of the elementary schools 75,566 had only one teacher.[1]

In recent years the number of elementary schools has been decreasing. From 1928 to 1948 the number of one-teacher schools decreased from 156,066 to 75,566, the decrease during the biennium 1946 to 1948 alone being almost 12,000.[1] The decrease in the number of elementary schools other than one-teacher schools during those two decades is estimated at more than 10,000.

---

[1] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edger L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 194.

The number of high schools seems to have passed the peak in 1938. In 1930 there were 22,237 high schools; in 1938 there were 24,590; in 1946 there were 23,947; and in 1948 there were 22,408.[2] It is of considerable interest to note that the decreases in the number of high schools have occurred among the very small and the very large high schools. From 1930 to 1948 the number of high schools having fewer than 50 pupils declined from 26.7 per cent to only 16.7 per cent of all high schools.[3] There was also some decrease in the number of high schools having between 50 and 99 pupils. Between 1938 and 1946 the number of high schools with more than 1,000 pupils decreased by 214. The trend is distinctly away from very small or very large high schools, and toward those of moderate size, 300 to 1,000 pupils.[4]

The data as to size of schools in the three groups of states classified according to type of school district organization are shown in Table 37. A repetition of the figures is not necessary, but a few observations are in order:

1. In all three groups of states the average elementary school, exclusive of one-teacher schools, is barely large enough to meet a minimum standard of seven teachers per school. Nearly half the elementary schools are smaller than the standard.
2. The common-school-district states have a much higher per cent of very small high schools than either of the other two groups of states, "very small" being considered here as less than 100 pupils. In the nation as a whole, 42 per cent of the high schools are very small institutions.
3. As to the medium-size high schools, 100 to 299 pupils, there is but little difference in the per cents in common-school-district states and town- or township-unit states. The county-unit states have a considerably higher per cent of such schools than do the other two groups.
4. As to moderate- and large-size high schools, 300 or more pupils, there is but little difference between the per cent in the common-school-district states and the county-unit states. The proportion of such high schools in the town- or township-unit states is about twice as high as in the other two groups of states.

The prevalence of small high schools in all states regardless of the type of school district organization is almost exclusively a rural problem. In 1945–1946 the high schools located in rural areas (places of less than 2,500 population) were 71.7 per cent of all high schools. These schools had 32 per cent[1] of the pupils and 37 per cent of the teachers.

---

[1] *Ibid.* See also Gaumnitz, Walter H., and Blose, David T. *The One-teacher School—Its Midcentury Status.* Circular No. 318. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1950, p. 19.

[2] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C., 1949, Chap. V., p. 5. See also Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

[3] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 194.

[4] U.S. Office of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 4–6.

TABLE 37. SIZE OF SCHOOLS IN THE STATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO TYPE OF SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION, 1947–1948[a]

Item	27 states having the common-school-district type of organization	12 states having the county-unit type of school district organization	9 states having the town or township type of school-district organization	48 states
Average number of teachers per elementary school	4.0	5.9	5.6	4.2
Average number of teachers per elementary school, excluding one-teacher schools	8.5	6.5	7.5	7.7
One-teacher schools as of all elementary schools, per cent	61.7	43.6	29.1	52.7
Per cent of high schools with—:				
Fewer than 50 pupils[b]	21.1	10.1	8.6	16.7
50–99 pupils[b]	26.9	24.4	19.8	25.3
100–299 pupils[b]	33.9	46.0	34.0	37.0
300 or more pupils[b]	18.1	19.5	37.6	21.0

[a] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 194.

[b] High schools here include all types of classification whether junior, senior, junior-senior, or regular 4-year high schools.

The relative size of rural and urban high schools is shown in Table 38. The following observations concerning these data are in order:

1. For the nation as a whole, the average urban high school has about five times as many pupils and four times as many teachers as the average rural high school.
2. As measured by the number of pupils enrolled, by far the greatest difference between the size of rural and urban high schools is in the 27 common-school-district states, where the average rural high school is only one-tenth the size of the average urban high school and only about one-half as large as the average rural high school in the county-unit and the town- or township-unit states.
3. As measured by the number of teachers per school, the differences in size of the average rural high schools in the three groups of states are not nearly as great as the differences in the number of pupils. In fact the ratio of pupils to teachers in the common-school-district states is 1.7 times as great as in the county-unit states and 1.5 times as great as in the town- or township-unit states. The result of these differences, of course, tends to produce similar differences in the cost per pupils.

---

[1] It should not be concluded that the 32 per cent of pupils is all the rural children of high school age who are attending any high school. Many such children attend urban high schools.

These data do not include any conclusive evidence that the type or size of school districts per se have had a determining effect upon the size of schools. Although the common-school-district states have a larger proportion of one-teacher schools and of small high schools and a smaller proportion of large high schools than either of the other two groups of states, it is not to be concluded that these differences are necessarily due to the type of school district organization. The differences in size of schools are probably due to differences in topography, in types of agriculture, in types of settlement and dispersion of population, in the proportion of urban population, and in state policy and program in the consolidation of schools. A consideration of all the facts seems to indicate that the organization of larger school districts does not necessarily result in larger schools, but it undoubtedly facilitates reorganization where needed.

TABLE 38. SIZE OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR RURAL AND URBAN AREAS, BY GROUPS OF STATES CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO TYPE OF SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION, 1945–1946[a]

Item	Rural	Urban	Total
Average number of pupils per high school, all states	128	696	290
27 common-district states	75	763	287
12 county-unit states	142	474	225
9 town- or township-unit states	167	730	409
Average number of instructional staff members per high school, all states	7.0	30.0	13.4
27 common-district states	6.5	32.2	13.3
12 county-unit states	6.9	19.7	10.1
9 town- or township-unit states	9.4	33.9	19.9

[a] Derived from U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1945–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C., 1949, Table 6, pp. 30–31.

Finance and Reorganization. On the one hand school district organization and the size of schools directly affect the cost of education and the program that is obtainable for the money spent. On the other hand the amount of state funds available for school support and the method of distributing the benefits to local subdivisions have a direct bearing on the reorganization of school districts. Furthermore, a complete and comprehensive system of school finance is essential to obtaining needed reforms in the school district structure of most states.[1]

Size and Cost. Size of school and the cost per pupil are directly related. In general, the smaller the school, the higher the cost per pupil; and the smaller the administrative unit, the smaller the school or schools within it.

---

[1] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, Chap. VII.

Thus, the organization of administrative units is closely related to the per-pupil cost of education.

Many studies have indicated that in elementary schools the cost per pupil decreases rapidly up to an enrollment of 100 pupils and to a less marked degree up to 200 pupils, and that in high schools the cost per pupil decreases rapidly up to 200 pupils and continues to decrease, but not so rapidly, up to 500 pupils. It tends to remain stationary in high schools of 500 to 1,000 pupils.[1]

That the instructional costs of small classes puts a tremendous burden on the budgets of small schools is obvious. It has been shown in New York State that the cost per pupil in one-teacher schools having 10 to 14 pupils is twice the cost in schools having 25 to 29 pupils, and in schools having 5 to 9 pupils the cost is three times as great.[2] In high schools, if the average salary of the teacher is only $2,400, the cost of teaching one pupil in four subjects in classes of 25 pupils each for one year is $64, but if the classes have only 10 pupils, the cost is $160.

The number and size of schools and school districts are directly related to the total cost of education. It is a fact that in most instances educational opportunities equal to that offered in numerous small units can be obtained for less expense under reorganization. For the same expense better educational opportunities could be obtained. In some wealthy areas reorganization would make possible better opportunities for smaller expenditures. In a vast majority of cases, however, since the primary purpose of reorganization is better schools, increased expenditures will result and are wholly desirable.[3]

Amount of State Support. The amount of state funds available to school districts has much to do with whether reorganization will be looked upon favorably or unfavorably. If state funds are insufficient to pay for, or guarantee, an adequate school program, it is obvious that such a program, if it is obtained, must be paid for by local taxes usually falling on general property. Experience has shown that in the absence of adequate state support school consolidation has resulted in excessive tax burdens on farmers and other general property owners, with the resultant discouragement of further reorganization of school districts.[4]

Method of Distributing State Funds. The method or plan of distributing state school funds among the local units may either retard or accelerate school district reorganization. It may place a premium on the *status quo*, or it may reward proper organization.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 89–90.

[2] Grace, A. G., and Moe, G. A. *State Aid and School Costs.* The Regents' Inquiry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938, p. 182.

[3] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 90–91.

[4] Starrak, J. A. "School District Organization in Iowa." *Your School District* (Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*), p. 170.

Among the state financial provisions that discourage reorganization are the following:[1]

1. Too much aid is granted to small nonisolated schools. If they are consolidated, a loss in the amount of state aid occurs.
2. Aid is granted on the number of teachers employed. If reorganization effects a reduction in the number of teachers needed, there is a loss in the total amount of aid.
3. Districts are classified according to population and the per cent of the cost of schools paid by the state is greatest for the smallest class of districts. Thus, if districts consolidate so as to reach the next highest class in size, they suffer a loss in state aid.
4. State aid is sufficient to enable many small districts to operate with no local taxes, or with very low tax rates.
5. Insufficient state equalization funds are granted for current expenses, with the result that reorganization places too great a tax burden on general property in the new district.
6. Insufficient state aid, or none at all, is made available for pupil transportation.
7. Insufficient state aid, or none at all, is made available for school buildings.

Among the state financial provisions that encourage or reward school district reorganization are the following:[2]

1. Sufficient state aid is guaranteed to enable the reorganized districts to maintain at least as established minimum school program with a uniform fixed local tax rate on equalized assessments.
2. Adequate state aid is granted for pupil transportation.
3. Adequate state aid is granted for school buildings.
4. Reorganized districts receive more favorable treatment in the distribution of state funds than those that do not reorganize.
5. Small schools and small school districts are penalized financially if they continue to operate.

An Adequate Scope of Finance. If school district reorganization is to take place, the system of school finance established by state law should provide funds for the support of all important aspects of a complete program of elementary and secondary schools. If any part of the program is neglected or if some parts of it are supported at the expense of other parts, an imbalanced and imperfect program of education will result. A complete finance plan will provide for (1) all current operation and maintenance expense of schools; (2) the expense of administration, supervision, and other central office services; (3) special educational opportunities for handicapped children; (4) pupil transportation; and (5) the cost of buildings, sites, and equipment and apparatus.

---

[1] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 199.

If the idea that the financial support of schools is primarily an obligation of the state is accepted, then it follows that the local tax-paying ability of a proposed reorganized school district is not a necessary criterion for its establishment.

Rural Community Schools in New York. The best example of consistent progress over a period of 27 years in the reorganization of school districts into community units is in the state of New York. Between 1925 and 1951 about 85 per cent of the rural areas of the state was included in 426 central districts formed by reorganization (Table 39).

One of the most notable facts about the central districts has been the tendency to increase the size of those formed in recent years. For example, the 15 districts organized in 1950–1951 had an average enrollment of 1,279 as compared to an average of only 335 in 1924–1925. As the state has had experience with this problem, it has discovered the importance of creating districts with as large an enrollment as practicable so that the local educational program may be expended. With the passing years farmers and others have seen the practicability of transportation for greater distances (although this policy has not been without its critics), through the purchase of more substantial busses, the securing of better drivers, and the development of snow-removal policies. When approximately 90 to 100 more districts have been established, the entire rural area of the state will have been included in these central districts.

While the central district follows the general patterns of a sociological community, not every such identifiable community is made into an administrative unit. The need for a minimum enrollment is recognized so that in many of these districts two or more sociological communities have been brought together (see the illustration in Figure 3, Chapter 5).

What factors were largely responsible for these developments? Four merit brief mention.[1]

The whole program of getting an effective law was proposed by a group of representatives of rural and professional organizations. This group, known as the Committee of 21, was so constituted and proceeded in such a way that favorable reactions were obtained from the farm people. Leadership, democratic procedure, and public confidence were large elements in the success of the program.

The financial provisions of the law are very significant. From the beginning of its operation in 1925, provision was made for sufficient state aid to guarantee each district that levied an established minimum local school tax rate sufficient funds for the current expense of the school program. In fact, the central districts received proportionately larger grants of state aid

---

[1] Butterworth, Julian E. "The Evolution of Rural School Organization in New York." *Your School District* (Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*), Part II, Chap. 5, pp. 193–211.

TABLE 39. CENTRAL-DISTRICT TRENDS IN NEW YORK, 1914–1951[a]

School year	No. of central districts formed	No. of former districts included	Average per central district			Cumulative no. of former districts	Districts dissolved and territory annexed to central district	Cumulative grand total of former districts incorporated in central districts
			Former districts	Pupils	True valuation in millions			
1914–1915	1[b]	5	5.0	[c]	[c]	5	0	5
1924–1925	3	11	3.6	335	$ 2.2	16	0	16
1925–1926	20	91	4.5	235	1.8	107	0	107
1926–1927	12	79	6.5	217	1.4	186	1	187
1927–1928	13	67	5.1	193	.6	253	3	257
1928–1929	17	136	8.0	298	1.6	389	4	397
1929–1930	20	169	8.4	545	1.7	558	5	571
1930–1931	52	659	12.6	422	1.7	1217	18	1248
1931–1932	3	41	13.6	481	1.9	1258	29	1318
1932–1933	2	24	12.0	400	2.1	1282	13	1355
1933–1934	6	81	13.3	379	2.4	1363	6	1442
1934–1935	11	143	13.0	490	2.9	1506	13	1598
1935–1936	24	339	14.2	524	1.8	1845	18	1955
1936–1937	15	261	17.4	633	3.3	2106	19	2235
1937–1938	27	420	15.5	530	2.7	2526	38	2693
1938–1939	43	692	16.1	599	3.0	3218	54	3439
1939–1940	[d]	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	3218	41	3480
1940–1941	14	203	14.5	709	3.9	3421	31	3714
1941–1942	12	191	15.9	534	2.4	3612	86	3991
1942–1943	3	73	24.3	727	3.7	3685	49	4113
1943–1944	13	284	21.8	776	5.2	3969	63	4460
1944–1945	10	232	25.2	741	6.7	4201	54	3746
1945–1946	14	222	15.9	792	7.0	4423	53	5021
1946–1947	9	147	16.3	750	10.8	4570	53	5221
1947–1948	14	196	14.0	735	7.3	4766	74	5491
1948–1949	24	412	17.2	1036	6.7	5178	45	5948
1949–1950	29	505	17.4	1110	8.5	5683	45	6498
1950–1951	15[e]	212	14.1	1279	11.7	5895	50	6760
Total.	426	5895	. . .	. . .	. . .	5895	865	6760

[a] New York State Education Department, Bureau of Rural Administrative Services, Albany, N.Y.

[b] Youngsville received state aid for the first time January, 1931.

[c] Information not available.

[d] No central districts organized 1939–1940.

[e] Includes centralization of Dryden-Freeville and McLean central districts.

than other districts, since they received the regular apportionments plus the aid that the constituent districts had received before reorganization. In addition, the new districts received one-half the cost of pupil transportation and one-fourth the cost of new school buildings needed. While over the years changes have been made in the financial provisions of the law, the fundamental principles involved have remained the same. It is recognized that schools in sparsely populated areas require special aid. An increased allowance determined by applying a sparsity-correction formula is made, and a flat 12 per cent is added for this type of district. Aid for pupil transportation and school buildings is now made according to equalization formulas. Thus the state-aid plan places a definite premium on district reorganization.

The Bureau of Rural Administrative Services in the state Department of Education has been a leading influence in aiding the local people in the creation and organization of their central districts. This Bureau, created upon the recommendation of the Committee of 21, makes surveys of the need for and the effect of centralization. It plans educational programs and coordinates the services of the various other divisions of the state Department of Education by showing what the program and facilities of a particular project may be, what the program will cost, what the state will contribute, and what financial responsibilities will be placed upon the local community. Thus, state professional leadership has been recognized as necessary and has been made available.

These districts are created upon authorization of a majority vote at a meeting called for the purpose of voting on a proposed reorganization. Voting on the subject is not by original districts but by the people in all the districts included in the proposed centralization.

A Program of Action. As a result of the experience of many states, the lines of action to obtain proper reorganization of school districts are now clear. Likewise, what not to do is equally clear.[1]

Some states have settled the matter of school district reorganization by direct legislative action. For example, Florida, Maryland, Louisiana, Utah, and West Virginia have created the county as a school district. As recently as 1933, West Virginia by a single act of the legislature abolished the 393 local school districts and created 55 county units of school administration, no cities whatever being exempted.[2] In 1934, Kentucky required the county boards of education to abolish all school districts that had less than 250 pupils, except those embracing cities of the first five classes, and attach them to the county-unit districts.[1] In 1948, through an initiated act approved by the people at a state general election, Arkansas abolished all school districts having less than 350 persons of school age and attached them to a county school district. The number of districts was thus reduced from over 1,500 to 424.[2]

---

[1] Dawson, Reeves, *et al.*, *op. cit.* Space does not permit a full account here of procedures recommended and found successful. The reader is referred especially to Chaps. 8 and 10 and all of Part II of *Your School District*. Chapter 10 outlines fully the provisions of law and procedure that can be adapted to any state.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 231, 233–234.

It should be kept in mind, however, that the creation of new and larger administrative units does not necessarily solve the problem of obtaining satisfactory attendance units or schools of proper sizes. Legal provisions, leadership, expert advice, and plans for the reorganization of attendance units are needed.

There are, no doubt, some other states that would profit by legislative action similar to that adopted in the states mentioned. Where such action has been taken there is no evidence that the dire predictions of destruction of democracy and the undermining of local self-government have resulted. Nevertheless, for most of the states there are other, and perhaps better, ways of obtaining school district reorganization. There is little doubt that most states will reorganize their school districts into community units and that reorganization proposals will be submitted to popular vote for approval or rejection. The broad outlines of tested ways of obtaining reorganization will be presented here.

Some Essential Factors in Obtaining School District Reorganization. In the first place, responsible leadership representative of the various groups of citizens having a direct interest in school district reorganization is needed to arrive at decisions as to proper procedures and to gain public understanding and support. Leadership may come from several sources. Certainly it should come from such groups and agencies as the farm organizations, school-board associations, the Parent-Teacher Association, the state education association, business and commercial organizations, organized labor, the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service, the county superintendents (or similar administrators), and the state department of education. The leadership of the Committee of 21 in New York State, already referred to, and of the Committee on Rural Education and the Illinois Agricultural Association in Illinois are two good examples of successful efforts.

School district reorganization can be greatly facilitated and accelerated by adequate laws establishing orderly and definite procedure for planning reorganization and for timely and specific action on plans legally proposed and submitted. Laws that have proved successful are found in Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Missouri, New York, North Dakota, Washington, and

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 249.

[2] Date received from Arkansas State Department of Education.

Wisconsin. *A Model Statute for School District Reorganization*, prepared by the Division of Rural Service and the Division of Research of the National Education Association, embodies the desirable features of necessary law on this subject.[1]

Definite responsibility should be fixed for planning school district reorganization. The National Commission on School District Reorganization recommended that a state commission and county or regional committees be set up for this purpose for a period not to exceed six years, after which the work pertaining to reorganization should be made the responsibility of a division of the state department of education.

Professional assistance should be made available to the officials who are given the responsibility for planning school district reorganizations. Professional services are needed from school administrators, educational finance experts, school-building experts, rural sociologists, draftsmen, map makers, and statisticians. In addition, the services of an adequate number of clerical workers are needed.

School district reorganization is not likely to take place without an adequate amount of state funds for school support and satisfactory methods of apportioning the benefits of such funds. Money on an equalization basis should be available for current expenses, school buildings, transportation, and special administrative, supervisory, and teaching services needed by all modern school systems.[2]

School district reorganization is necessary if needed educational opportunities are to be made available to rural people, and if economy and efficiency in the use of personnel, money, and other resources are to be earmarks of our public schools. Reorganization by happenstance is not likely to produce any of these desirable results. Leadership, responsibility, planning, competent professional services, sound financing, and workable state laws are the requisites of proper reorganization and of educational progress.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Draw up a plan for procedure in planning the reorganization of administrative and attendance units. Outline the statistical data that will be needed; describe the maps that will be useful; set up the standards to be followed; indicate the resources to be used in developing plans, including persons, agencies, organization, and advisory councils to be used.

2. Compile and organize the evidence from research and expert opinion that indicate the size of satisfactory local units of school administration.

---

[1] Mimeographed, obtainable upon request to the Division of Rural Service, National Education Association.

[2] See previous sections of this chapter and the section on "Finance and School District Reorganization" in Chap. 25.

3. Using the suggestions in the first five problems at the end of Chapter 5, the standards as to size of satisfactory units, and the time and distance limits indicated in this chapter, develop a plan for the reorganization of school administrative and attendance units in a selected county or other local area.

4. In what respects do the provisions of the state school finance laws and regulations of your state retard or hamper school-district reorganization? In what respects do they aid or accelerate reorganization?

5. Compile the statutes in your state relating to the reorganization of school districts, set up criteria for evaluating such statutes, and then evaluate them. Draft a model statute on school-district reorganization for your state.

6. Write a history of the development of school districts in your state.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alves, Henry F., Anderson, Archibald W., and Fowlkes, John Guy. *Local School Unit Organization in Ten States.* Local School Units Project. Bulletin 1938, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1939.

Alves, Henry F., and Morphet, Edgar L. *Principles and Procedures in the Organization of Satisfactory Local School Units.* Local School Units Project, Bulletin 1938, No. 11. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1939.

American Association of School Administrators. *Schools in Small Communities.* Seventeenth Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1939. Chap. 12, "Reorganizing the Administrative Structure," pp. 212–234.

Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949. Chap. IV, "Significant Aspects of Local School Organization and Administration," pp. 51–66, and 192–200.

Cook, Katherine M. (ed.). *Reorganization of School Units. A Report of the Proceedings of a Conference Called by the Commissioner of Education.* Bulletin 1935, No. 15. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1936.

Dawson, Howard A. *Satisfactory Local School Units. Functions and Principles of Formation, Organization, and Administration.* Field Study No. 7. Nashville, Tenn.: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934.

———, Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948.

CHAPTER 20

EXPANDING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM THROUGH AN INTERMEDIATE DISTRICT

The preceding chapter has shown that it is only the larger cities and the better county units that are large enough to be self-sufficient in providing a complete program of administrative and special services.

Most of our non-county-unit states have developed some type of intermediate district organization as a means of broadening the educational program, of coordinating the various local districts, and of providing a liaison between the state and the localities. This type of organization is called an "intermediate" district because it lies between the local districts and the state.

The county unit and the intermediate district represent different conceptions as to how the school system, especially in rural areas, may be made more effective. It is, therefore, important that the educational possibilities and implications of these two organizations be understood.

Major Differences between County and Intermediate Districts. By studying the accompanying two columns, the differences between these districts become more clear. A fully developed county unit has a relatively simple organization. Because it is the local unit, the responsibility for control and financing is placed upon the county through a single board of education and a superintendent recognized as the executive officer for all territory included in the county unit. The intermediate district, on the other hand, from its very nature, is more complex. There is a local board or trustee for each constituent district. The intermediate district then coordinates these constituent districts and performs whatever functions may be allocated to it.

MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS OF COUNTY AND INTERMEDIATE DISTRICTS

County-unit organization	*Intermediate-unit organization*
1. Within the county unit there are no subordinate districts. There may, however, be local district committees (North Carolina) or local trustees (Maryland), but their functions are	1. The intermediate district is composed of a number of smaller districts, each with its own board of education or trustee. These districts vary in size and type: one-teacher districts; other small

County-unit organization	*Intermediate-unit organization*
limited. In some types of county organization all villages and cities are a part of the county district; in other types, certain villages and cities, by choice or by law, constitute independent districts. The county is divided into attendance areas.	elementary districts; consolidated, centralized, or community districts usually offering all the elementary and secondary grades; and sometimes large villages or small cities. The control of most educational functions lies with these boards and trustees.
2. The area included is usually the political county, but (as in Virginia) it sometimes includes two or more counties.	2. The present types are usually coterminous with the political county but need not be. Thus the new type of intermediate district in New York is to be composed of a number of constituent districts, some of which include portions of two or more counties. Similarly, in New England, town school districts are combined into intermediate districts without respect to counties.
3. There is one superintendent for the entire district, but most local schools have a principal or head teacher responsible to the county board of education through the county superintendent.	3. Each local district, except one-teacher and other small districts, has a superintendent (or principal) who is the executive officer of his board and responsible to it. The superintendent of the intermediate district has such powers and duties as may be given him by law. In addition, he has (or should have) the responsibility for exerting leadership with the local boards and executive officers—of securing action through voluntary agreement.
4. The county superintendent has such assistant superintendents, directors, supervisors, and special teachers attached to his office as his board allows him, *e.g.*, directors of transportation; of adult education; of pupil-personnel services such as guidance, attendance, care of handicapped children, etc.; supervisors of elementary schools, of reading, of vocational education, etc.; teachers of special classes, vocational education, etc.	4. The superintendent of the district has such assistants as may be allowed him. They may be the same as in the county-unit organization, but, except as the law or agreements among local boards give them authority, they act cooperatively with local officials.
5. The county is the local taxing authority for schools. It receives state aid and uses all its funds for maintaining all the schools of the county. In certain states, *e.g.*, North Carolina, a local "district" or attendance unit may impose supplementary taxes.	5. In many states, but not in all, the intermediate district may levy taxes to assist the constituent districts. State aid for the constituent districts may be given directly to them, or it may be turned over to the intermediate district for allocation in accordance with

County-unit organization	*Intermediate-unit organization*
	law. Funds for the support of the intermediate district organization may be provided through either local taxation or state aid or both.
6. Because the county unit constitutes a single system of schools, there should, theoretically at least, be no significant differences among the several attendance areas in the scope and quality of the education made available. However, some counties may be more alert in providing a superior program and thus have a stimulating effect upon other counties.	6. Since each constituent district levies its own taxes, some districts are likely to maintain a better program than others in the same intermediate district. This may have a stimulating influence on all constituent districts.

The Theory of the Intermediate District. American schools, particularly in the New England and the Middle Atlantic states, were established as community schools serving, in early colonial days, small and frequently isolated groups of the population. Each school was controlled and financed by its locality. Thus grew the one-teacher and other small school districts which were carried into the Middle West and on to the Pacific Coast as the population moved westward. Policies were usually determined by the citizens of the community coming together in town or district meetings. Thus, citizens have had an opportunity to participate directly in the determination of the kind of school they believed should be established and have determined the policies that should govern it.

Out of these origins has grown a belief that has had a profound effect on school organization in the United States—the belief that small school districts responsible directly to the people of the community tend to stimulate local interest and initiative and to develop a sense of responsibility for education. In many states this idea still persists. Moreover, it appears to be based upon a recognition of something important in human nature, namely, that responsibility fosters and develops understanding and support. The influence of this belief should not be underestimated. Failure to recognize it has been an important factor in preventing, in a number of our states, the approval of a better type of educational organization.

As this country has moved from pioneer conditions of small and isolated communities, a larger type of community has developed, and this suggests the wisdom of enlarging the school district to correspond to this larger community. Thus, in contrast with the original small district, there evolved the "town" (township) unit in New England and a few other states and the county units in some states, while in others centralized, consolidated, village and similar types of school districts were established.

The intermediate district leaves to the constituent district the major responsibility for controlling the educational program. It becomes a coordinating agency that, under favorable conditions, makes possible the expansion of educational offerings and services beyond those provided in the local districts.

In appraising county and intermediate districts it should be recognized that, if it is discovered that the county unit tends to discourage the active interest and participation of people in their local school, this could be offset in part by the appointment of local trustees, as in Maryland and North Carolina. While the functions of these trustees are limited, they may stimulate discussion among local groups and pass on to the county board of education the thinking of their neighbors. However, it is likely that this type of local participation is not as effective in developing an active interest as if the people were made directly responsible for the development and financing of their own schools.

On the other hand, the intermediate district does have certain disadvantages as compared with the county unit. As previously indicated, it is a more complex organization in that there are two groups having responsibility for different phases of the school program. This complexity need not, however, create serious difficulty. If the functions of intermediate and local boards are clearly defined, there is no valid reason why these should not work together in harmony.

In these two concepts of local school organization—the county and the intermediate district—we have a conflict in theory as to how education can best be administered. May it be done best by centralizing the responsibility in one county board of education? Or, over long periods of time, do the advantages of that special quality of local interest, initiative, and responsibility that may come from community control offset the disadvantages of the more complex organization of the intermediate district? We are fortunate that under our American system of government it is possible to try out both concepts to see which is superior. Possibly one concept is best in one set of circumstances and another concept in another set. The danger is that a state will decide upon one or the other theory of educational government, will enact that theory into law, and will then assume that the best answer has been found. What is needed first of all is a clear notion as to what is desired in an educational program. Through practical experimentation and research we may then decide which type of organization gives better results.

Types of Intermediate District Organization. In Delaware and Nevada all administrative and supervisory services, outside those provided by local districts, are made available through the state. Twelve of the states have a county-unit organization. In the other states there is some type of intermediate district with responsibility for certain educational functions.

In the six New England states it is a combination of towns, usually known as a "supervisory union." In New York it is a "supervisory district," that in a very few cases includes an entire county but in most cases is a part of a county only. In the 27 other states the intermediate district is the county.

These three types of intermediate districts differ among themselves, and within each type, especially those using the county, there are significant differences as to the organization established, the conditions favoring effective professional leadership, the authority granted the district and the scope and quality of the services made available. Space does not permit a detailed analysis of all these differences, but the more important characteristics of these intermediate districts in certain states will be described as type cases.

The Supervisory Union. In Vermont, the state board of education is authorized to establish supervisory unions of approximately fifty teachers "with districts grouped in the interest of convenience and efficiency," but may not include a town or city of 40 or more teachers. There is no separate board of education for the supervisory union, but when the union has business to transact, all directors of local boards are brought together. Business is transacted by a majority of all members present or represented. The major function of these directors of the various towns in the union is to select a superintendent whose salary is paid by each district in proportion to the number of full-time teachers employed. The superintendent is expected to divide his time among the towns as nearly as feasible in proportion to the number of teachers in each. He has general supervision of the public schools in his territory and performs such duties as may be prescribed by law or by the directors of the district. The control of the schools in each town is vested in the board of education of that town. While the supervisory union may provide special types of services available to all schools, this has not been done very frequently. Thus, it is evident that, while there is in the supervisory union the beginnings of an intermediate district, up to the present time, it has not developed very far.

The County: Undeveloped Type. In Wyoming the county superintendent is elected for a four-year term. To qualify he need only hold a first-class teacher's certificate of his state. Among his duties, as specified in the law, are to have supervision of educational matters; to keep a file of official transactions of his office; to make an annual report to the state superintendent; to hear and determine appeals from the decisions of district boards; to visit schools; to recommend dismissal of incompetent teachers; to report failure of a district to teach curriculums required by the state; to give the state superintendent a map showing the boundaries of each district; to hold an annual teachers' institute; to enforce the compulsory-education law; to apportion state and county school funds; to compile the school census; etc. While most of these functions are important in the administration of a county school system, they are more or less routine and require little in the way of forward-looking educational leadership. More important in the way of leadership opportunity is the county superintendent's membership on a county board for school district reorganization. The superintendent's salary is based upon the assessed valuation of property in the county, $3,000 being the highest salary paid. While first-class counties may, with the consent of the county commissioners, appoint a deputy superintendent, in 1943–1944 only three counties had one. There is no county board of education; the superintendent, therefore, lacks a representative group to formulate policy and to support him in promoting a forward-looking program.

The County: More Advanced Type. In Ohio each county has a county board of education of five members who may or may not be members of a local board of education. These members are elected for four-year terms. The county board has jurisdiction as defined in law over all districts in the county except city districts and village districts of more than 3,000 population whose boards have voted to be exempt from county supervision. The board appoints the county superintendent, who must have had at least five years' experience as superintendent and must hold one of several types of superintendent's certificate. One or more assistant county superintendents may be employed. In 1943–1944, 88 counties had 31 additional professional staff members. In 1947–1948, the lowest salary of a county superintendent was $3,300: the highest was $7,200; the median was $4,800. The superintendent has such important functions as the nominating of teachers and principals in dependent districts (with certain minor exceptions); visitation, inspection, and supervision of instruction; calling teachers' conferences; etc. The county board does not have authority to levy a school tax, but it prepares a budget for the county district which is certified to the state superintendent. He then allocates the costs among the dependent districts and deducts these amounts from state-aid funds. The board has no control over sites, plans, or equipment of buildings, but it may initiate action if a local district does not provide suitable schoolhouses. It may employ an attendance officer and assistants and is required to determine the number of transportation routes needed.

This intermediate district has both strong and weak points. Among the former are a small county board of education selected at large; the power of appointing the county superintendent; and general authority to promote the educational program. On the other hand, not much progress appears to have been made as yet in providing certain services—the education of handicapped children, or specialized types of vocational education, such as industrial education, adult education, etc.—to supplement the programs of the constituent districts. Undoubtedly, these services will be extended as time goes on, since the organization by which this may be achieved exists.

A District Based upon Socioeconomic Factors. Since New York has recently (1948) enacted legislation for a new type of intermediate district and since this legislation was preceded by an extensive study of the problem, it may be useful to describe briefly what has taken place in this state.

In 1912 the present supervisory district was established and 207 (increased later to 208) such districts were created. The professional officer of the supervisory district is a district superintendent who is elected by a board of directors representing the towns of his territory. This board has no function other than the selection of the superintendent, although in some cases superintendents have consulted them regarding educational problems and policies. The supervisory district has no funds for the extension of the educational program and no board of education with clearly designated responsibility for promoting education in the district.

In 1944 a study was initiated by the New York State Council on Rural Education with the cooperation of the State Education Department, the Association of District Superintendents, the Council of City Superintendents, the Association of Secondary Principals, and other groups. After a three-year study a law was enacted that provided for the laying out by the Commissioner of Education of proposed intermediate districts "consisting of combinations of such present school districts as in the judgment of the Commissioner of Education are of sufficient size, suitable geographically, and with sufficient pupil population and financial support to provide the additional services contemplated by this act." Cities may not be included but village districts having a superintendent of schools may be. The research staff for the study recommended the establishment of 65 intermediate districts, of which a few approximated present supervisory district or county boundaries but most cut across these boundaries. The new districts would have a median enrollment of 6,854 (as of 1943–1944) as compared with a median enrollment in 1939–1940 of 1,883 in the present supervisory districts. A majority of all votes cast in a special election is necessary for the establishment of such an intermediate district.

The law[1] provides for the appointment of a board of education by an intermediate district council. This council is made up of all board members of constituent districts. To the board of education is delegated the responsibility for (1) appointing a superintendent and necessary assistants; (2) studying educational needs and making recommendations for dealing with them; (3) providing special services for constituent districts

[1] *Laws of New York*, Chapter 861, Article 40; Sections 1950–1958.

at their request and at their expense; (4) preparing a budget for support of the intermediate district for action by the council; (5) making contracts with other districts for educational services; (6) providing, by rental, purchase, or construction, any necessary building facilities; (7) attending meetings of the council; and (8) making provision for these six educational functions: the education of handicapped children, industrial education, adult education, supervision, the administration of attendance, and the administration of transportation. Other functions may be delegated to the intermediate district board by a two-thirds vote of the intermediate district council. This council has not only the responsibility indicated, but those of approving, amending, or disapproving the budget as proposed by the intermediate district board, studying the educational needs of the area, and making recommendations to the intermediate district board for improvements in the area. The program is to be financed by a tax levied by the constituent districts upon its property and by state aid. The state aid consists of certain special quotas for special classes, adult education, transportation, and summer high school, together with a sum approved by the commissioner of education, but not over $125,000 to each intermediate district.

The provision for aid was adopted by the legislature as a temporary measure until the state had had experience with a few intermediate districts. However, because the uncertainty of future policy on state aid has been an important deterrent to the development of this new type of district, the Council on Rural Education has supported a more specific type of aid that includes one-half the salary paid each superintendent (the aid not to exceed $5,000), one-half the salary paid each assistant superintendent, director, and supervisor (the aid not to exceed $4,000 for each person of this type), and one-half the salaries of teachers required for the intermediate district program (the aid not over $2,500 for each person); an equalization quota; an administrative quota not to exceed 5 per cent of the approved expenditures of the intermediate district; special quotas for transportation, special classes, summer high school attendance, and adult education; and a building quota for the erection of area schools.

Considerable freedom of action is given the intermediate district in determining how the special services may be provided. The board may contract for any or all services with a nearby city or village; it may contract with one or more constituent districts to do this; or it may establish an area school or schools. A study of three proposed intermediate districts would indicate that no one method is always to be preferred.[1]

---

[1] Scott, Don. "Methods of Implementing the Educational Program in Different Intermediate Districts." *The Intermediate District in New York State; Special Studies.* Bulletin No. 1356. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1948, pp. 43–78.

Intermediate District Functions. The intermediate district has its greatest opportunity in making available offerings and services that cannot be provided economically by any or most of the constituent districts. Among its more obvious opportunities, as the educational program in rural areas is now envisioned, are the following:

1. *Pupil personnel services.* Since there is seldom a sufficient number of handicapped children of different types in a rural community district to justify special programs, this general field may be allocated to the intermediate district. However, a special class for the backward may be justified in those local districts with an enrollment of 750 to 1,000. Attendance supervision should usually be placed with the intermediate district, with a resulting professionalization of this service and an emphasis upon discovering and removing causes of nonattendance. While guidance services should be available through the local district when there are from 400 to 600 in the high school, the intermediate district may supplement the work of the local counselor by providing testing facilities, special analyses of occupational status and trends, and the consultative services of a psychologist and a psychiatrist. All these pupil personnel services could be stimulated and coordinated through a director in the office of the intermediate district superintendent.

2. *Adult education.* While most local districts should offer courses in adult education, there are certain types that can best be offered through the intermediate district. For example, in the local district there may not be enough persons interested in learning how to control fruit pests, but the number in the intermediate district where fruit growing is an important occupation may be sufficient to justify this specialized type of adult education. Furthermore, if some one in the intermediate district has responsibility for promoting adult education throughout the area the entire program is likely to be better planned and more satisfactorily implemented.

3. *Special supervision.* The intermediate district may provide one or more supervisors of elementary education, vocational education, secondary education, or more specialized types of supervision in such subjects as reading and social studies. It may provide leadership in curriculum services and, through a curriculum-materials library, including audiovisual aids, can greatly increase the facilities of the constituent schools.

4. *Transportation.* The intermediate district could well take over the administration of transportation for the entire territory instead of having this duty assumed by the several school districts. Routes could be laid out with a minimum of overlapping, purchases could usually be made at lower cost, while bus servicing and major repairs could probably be done more efficiently and economically. A director of transporta-

tion might easily save more than his salary through an increase in transportation efficiency.

5. *Vocational education.* So far as possible, vocational education should be offered in the schools where facilities will be readily available to young people. This is not especially difficult for the basic offerings in home economics and agriculture. For adequate preparation in business it is not easy for the small school to make proper provision. The local school could offer typing, stenography, business law, and bookkeeping and could have the more advanced courses, including experience with business machines, made available through the intermediate district. In industrial education, a rural high school seldom has enough pupils interested in any one phase of industrial education that the offering of a curriculum for that group would be economically justifiable. The intermediate district might have enough pupils to justify the offering of several curriculums in industrial education.

6. *Library services* may be provided through the intermediate district, the books being distributed to schools as needed.

7. *Business management.* The intermediate district might take over the management of supplies. By making large purchases in behalf of all local districts some savings would undoubtedly result. A specialist in business management could give considerable assistance to local schools in scientific budget planning and could supervise the establishment of an adequate accounting system.

8. *Grades 13 and 14.* The development of junior colleges or community colleges in recent years suggests that some of the more populous intermediate districts will find it desirable to establish these grades.

The Essentials of a Good Intermediate District. At the present time practice in various intermediate districts is so varied that it is not easy to keep clearly in mind what constitutes a satisfactory district of this type. These seem to be essentials:

1. A sufficient pupil enrollment that it will be possible to provide the desired offerings and services both effectively and economically. What should constitute a minimum enrollment for such a district will need to be determined in the light of the conditions prevailing. The tendency to make such districts too small should be avoided.

2. The intermediate district should, so far as possible, represent a community of interests. This means that in many cases county boundaries would be ignored. In less densely populated states, the county is likely, however, to be a reasonably satisfactory intermediate district. Some states may, however, find it desirable, as has Virginia, to include two or more counties in its organization.

3. There should be a board of education representative of the people in

the intermediate district with the authority to determine policies that fall within its jurisdiction. Such a board should usually be small, preferably of five, seven, or nine members. These members, while they may be selected from the geographic areas of the intermediate district, should represent the district as a whole. This suggests that a member of the intermediate district board of education should not be a member of a local board. Such a person might have divided loyalities.

At the present time this ideal is achieved only in part in some of our states. In 12 states there is no county board of education to represent the people of the county. As a result, the superintendent must rely upon the general authority given him by law. Although some superintendents with superior leadership ability have been able to achieve significant results without a board, they run the risk of being accused of exceeding their authority. Furthermore, the superintendent is not encouraged, as he might be by having a representative board back of him, to propose forward-looking policies and programs; to do so is often to court defeat when next he seeks the office. In five states there are county boards with limited functions.

In 10 of the states having the county as an intermediate district there are county boards, but there is considerable difference in the responsibility given them by law.

In the New England states the supervisory union, made up of constituent towns, has a board composed of the directors of these towns or their representatives. Although their chief function is to employ a superintendent of schools for the union, they may, by exchange of ideas, influence the educational programs in the towns. In New York, the board of school directors for the supervisory district has only one specified function—the selection of the district superintendent.

The 12 county-unit states have county boards of education, and this constitutes one of the strong elements in this type of organization.[1]

In local school administration it has become practice throughout the United States for the board to select its executive officer and determine his compensation. There are good reasons for believing that similar practice on the intermediate district level would tend to attract and hold the best talent available.

4. There should be a staff attached to the superintendent's office adequate in number and qualifications to meet the needs of the district. The situation at present is far from satisfactory, as shown by Table 40.

---

[1] Summarized from Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, pp. 270–279. In some cases a state belongs in one category for some counties; in another category for other counties.

While there are marked differences among states and among counties of the same states, the 3,371 intermediate and county units have 3,320 professional assistants (not quite one to a unit); they have 2,755 full-time clerks and 458 part-time clerks.

TABLE 40. ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFFS PROVIDED BY INTERMEDIATE AND COUNTY UNITS, 1948[a]

Type of school district organization	No. of superintendents	No. of other professional staff members	No. of clerks	
			Full time	Part time
7 states having supervisory union or supervisory district as intermediate unit	452	107	37	86
27 states having the county as intermediate unit	2,009	1,769	1,151	160
12 states with a county-unit organization	910	1,444	1,567	212

[a] Summarized from Cooper, Shirley, Chairman. *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1950, pp. 175, 176. In the county-unit states some of the staff is provided by the state.

Here and there some districts of this type are showing a realization of the size of the task to be performed. In San Diego County, California, (with an enrollment of 42,000 outside the city of San Diego) there has been built up, largely since 1943, a county service that involved, in 1949–1950, $141,011 for the superintendent's office and $7,484 for the county board of education. These funds came from the county board of supervisors. In addition, there was a budget of $37,236 from the constituent districts of the county for contract coordination and mobile shop courses, $11,502 for audiovisual aids, and $37,325 for library services. There was a budget of $67,598 from a special county tax for classes for the handicapped. Finally, there was a budget of $296,431 from the state-county school-service fund, which was used primarily to operate the curricular services on the county or intermediate level. The total amount available through the county superintendent's office is $598,587. There are three divisions in the superintendent's office: curricular, business, and special services, with a total of 103 employees. Of the latter, 40 are of credentialed rank; 63 are clerks or stenographers. Included in the division of curricular services are audiovisual aids; curriculum development; curriculum coordination; curriculum laboratory; guidance-attendance; school library; supervision; and trade, vocational, and industrial service.

5. The law establishing the intermediate district should define clearly the functions of this district in order that the danger of conflict with local authorities will be minimized. There would be many advantages if the law were to specify a method, as is done in the recent New York law, whereby a change in responsibility may be made without waiting for state-wide action.

6. The intermediate district should be dominated by the concept of leadership rather than by that of mere legal authority. While the intermediate district should have definite responsibilities if it is to function effectively, much of the progress that comes will be because of the quality of the leadership shown by the board, its superintendent, and other employees.

7. The intermediate district must have financial support to carry on its activities. How this should be done depends upon the pattern of financial support in the state. Undoubtedly, the intermediate district board should have authority to levy taxes upon the property of its territory. Usually some form of state aid for intermediate district activities will also be desirable for its stimulating and equalizing value.

Organization of the Intermediate District. In summary, a well-organized district of this type will be headed by a small policy-making board of education, preferably elected by the people of the district for staggered terms of about five years. The board should have specific functions assigned it that would reduce the chances of overlapping the duties of local boards. It should select its superintendent for indeterminate term subject to efficient service and should pay him a salary commensurate with his responsibilities and leadership ability. Upon the recommendation of the superintendent, the board should authorize such assistant superintendents, directors, supervisors, and special teachers as may be required. State aid for intermediate districts purposes should be available, and the board should have authority to levy taxes upon the district as may be needed to make its program effective.

The Intermediate District in Evolution. As our American states developed from pioneer conditions, counties or other units were set up as means of enabling people to govern themselves better. Education was naturally recognized as one function of these new units of government. The first county superintendency was established in Delaware in 1929. New York took similar action in 1841; Illinois, in 1844. In the quarter century between 1850 and 1875, 29 states established this office. During the 1860 decade, 15 states took this action.

Early Functions. In most states the county superintendency, in early days, was recognized primarily as a clerical office. To the superintendent were delegated such functions as making reports, keeping records, examining and certifying teachers, revoking certificates, holding meetings, distributing state aid, visiting schools, and exercising "general supervision." All these are important functions, but they are not enough to make a job that challenges a superior professional leader. In recent years new functions have been recognized that make the county superintendency one of the most important educational offices in the United States.

In some states the intermediate district still has not made much progress toward becoming the influential type of district that is needed. Too frequently the county superintendency is an office of small pay and minimum qualifications, with poor organization inadequately financed. Much remains to be done if effective leadership in the rural areas is to be achieved.

Evolution of the County Board of Education in Iowa. This state illustrates the several steps that are sometimes taken toward the creation of an adequate board of education either because a clear concept of what this board may be has not existed or because the people were unwilling to move all the way at one time.

In 1860, the law provided that there should be a county superintendent elected like other county officers. In 1890, a county board of education was created composed of the county superintendent, the county auditor, and the county board of supervisors, "whose duty it shall be to arrange for a vote by the electors . . . for or against county uniformity of textbooks." In 1915, provision was made for a county convention consisting of a representative from each school unit, the purpose of the convention being the selection of the county superintendent. In 1919, the county board of education was changed to consist of six persons selected by the county convention. The board was to perform all duties prescribed by law for the county board and to "act as an advisory board to the county superintendent and cooperate with him in formulating plans and regulations for the advancement and welfare of the schools under his supervision." The law was again changed in 1947 to provide for a county board of five members elected by the people of the county. In general, its powers and duties "relate to matters affecting the county school system as a whole rather than specific details relating to individual schools or districts." The board selects the county superintendent.

Evolutionary Forces in New York. In this state the belief has been held that the implementation of the new type of intermediate district recently authorized will be a gradual process. Accordingly, the law was so framed as to make possible a sort of self-education of citizens and professional workers regarding the advantages of the new district. This was considered necessary because, while New York has a state education department more highly centralized than that in most states, citizens, especially farmers, believe strongly in local control of education. In the last twenty-five years the state has gone far in realizing that control may be local without keeping it in the one-teacher district by creating 426 central districts.

Three phases of the new law encourage its acceptance and make provision for the gradual development of the intermediate district organization: (1) The intermediate district has been given only limited functions but these are the ones involving pressing needs. (2) There has been created an intermediate district council, made up of all trustees and board members, which may decide that efficiency and economy make it desirable for the local districts to release certain responsibilities to the intermediate district and, by a two-thirds vote, may transfer such functions. (3) As a sort of interim step to the intermediate district, the new law provides for the creation of boards of cooperative services. These boards are authorized by a majority vote of all directors, trustees and board members within a supervisory district to act without the approval of the voters. As of July, 1950, 40 cooperative boards had been established in 17 counties. They are authorized to provide such additional personnel as school-nurse teacher, attendance supervisor, guidance director, dental hygienist, and teachers of art, music, physical education, vocational agriculture, homemaking, and driver education. Some state aid is given but it is not as liberal as that made available through the intermediate district. This fact, plus the more complex administrative organization of the board for cooperative services, is almost certain to lead in time to the realization that the new intermediate district would be preferable.

An older law, enacted in 1926, looks toward a similar expansion of services through a county vocational and extension board that may be established by a county board of supervisors. The state pays one-half the salary of each teacher, director, or supervisor that may be employed, not to exceed $1,800 for each. Recent information about the 19 boards that have been established shows that four are inactive, and six offer one service only (*e.g.*, nurse-teacher, dental hygienist, guidance worker). Only four boards provide more than three services. Two have rather comprehensive programs. While there are some who believe this board adequate for the task to be done, it is generally held that the new intermediate district would be superior. Its advantages are that the state aid is greater and the control of supplementary services is kept in the hands of those who have direction of the basic educational program.

Two other legal provisions are certain to aid in the establishment of the new intermediate district. Recognizing that the supervisory district was usually not large enough to provide highly specialized services, the commissioner of education, in 1936, was authorized to combine districts when vacancies in the superintendency occur. As a result, the 208 district superintendents have been reduced to 158 in October, 1950. The other law requires that, whenever an intermediate district is established, each district superintendent in the territory must be given a position at a salary no less than he is receiving.

Strengthening the Intermediate District. In those states that accept the intermediate district concept, considerable attention should be given in the immediate future to making it an organization that may do more effectively and more easily what is demanded in our expanding educational program. If this is done there will be less need for the state to extend its influence or for local districts, close to the people, to give up those elements of control that they are competent to manage.

It is to be hoped that, with a clear understanding of the importance of these units and of the significant contributions they may make, many of the states will move more quickly to an effective organization.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. If you live in a county-unit state, analyze the law with special reference to these matters: how large is the board of education and how is it appointed; how is the superintendent selected; what part of the school funds comes from the state and what from the county; may attendance areas of the county levy additional taxes for its school; what, if any, communities may be independent of the county board?

2. Study the particular county unit in which you live, giving special attention to the following matters: how far does the county provide the offerings and services outlined on pages 132 to 134 of Chapter 7; how does your tax rate compare with that of other counties (make sure that the rates are comparable); could your county afford better schools if the people knew what is needed?

3. If you live in an intermediate district state, study the law with reference to these matters: the size of the intermediate district board (if there is one) and the method of selecting it; how the superintendent is selected; what he is paid; what his legal duties are; how much money he has with which to maintain his office; from what source or sources this money comes.

4. Outline what you believe would be a practicable plan for improving your intermediate district.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alves, Henry F., Director. *Local School Unit Organization in Ten States.* Bulletin No. 10. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior), 1938.

Butterworth, Julian E., Crane, Edmund H., *et al. A New Intermediate School District for New York State.* Bulletin No. 1336. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1947.

Butterworth, Julian E., *et al. Improving Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas.* Bulletin No. 1322. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1946.

Cooper, Shirley (ed.). *The County Superintendent in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1950.

Cyr, Frank W. *Responsibility for Rural School Administration.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

Dawson, Howard A. *Satisfactory Local School Units.* Nashville, Tenn.: Peabody College for Teachers, 1934.

Everett, Marcia (ed.). *The Rural Supervisor at Work.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.

Morrison, J. Cayce, Butterworth, Julian E., Crane, Edmund H., *et al. The Intermediate District in New York State; Special Studies.* Bulletin No. 1356. Albany: New York State Education Department, 1948.

CHAPTER 21

PERSONNEL FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

To make effective the program as presented in this volume requires a personnel with imagination, courage, vigor, and special preparation suited to the job to be done. The essentials in the various jobs have been discussed in the several chapters of this volume.

The purpose of this chapter is to indicate the kinds of positions in rural schools, to estimate their number, and to present the problem of salaries, educational preparation, and conditions of employment that make service in rural schools attractive or otherwise. In discussing the educational preparation of personnel for rural schools it should be borne in mind that there are many common elements in the several professional positions in rural and urban schools. It follows, therefore, that there are common elements in the program of preparation. This chapter will give consideration only to those special types of preparation needed for work in the rural areas.

What Jobs and How Many? The number and kinds of services needed through the schools attended by rural children and youth are well known. They have been enumerated in other chapters of this book, especially in Chapters 15, 19, and 20. In fact, they are the services needed in any schools or school districts that offer a complete program of educational opportunities, whether urban or rural or a combination of both.

The number of persons needed to do the work required of modern schools serving rural pupils is not known with any satisfactory degree of accuracy. It is fortunate, however, that in some important respects dependable estimates of the number of employees needed have been made for the schools as a whole.[1] Estimates of the number needed for rural schools can only be approximated. As a general proposition, it probably can be safely stated that not less than 60 per cent of the additional personnel for specialized services outside of classroom teaching will be needed in or for schools serving rural children and youth. Certainly the per cent of the additional personnel will be higher than the per cent of rural pupils because there is now a greater deficiency of services for rural than for urban pupils and because, as has been pointed out elsewhere, many pupils who live in rural areas will attend schools located in urban places.

---

[1] National Education Association. *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America.* Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 32.

For rural children a considerable number of teachers will be needed in small schools. In 1950 there were probably about 60,000 teachers in one-teacher schools. Assuming that much desirable school reorganization will have been completed a decade or more hence, there will probably be at least 25,000 such teachers needed for a long time. They certainly have a complicated job of teaching to do that requires specialized education. In addition there will be many other small schools having two to six teachers, all of whom will need education in instructional organization of small schools, and a background in the experiences and needs of rural children.

For schools serving rural children other than one-teacher schools, there will probably be needed by 1960 at least 490,000 elementary teachers as compared to an estimated number of 360,000 in 1950. For the high school pupils there will probably be needed at least 130,000 teachers as compared to somewhat more than 100,000 in 1950.[1]

Conservative estimates as to the number of administrators, principals, and supervisors that will be needed within the next decade or so are as follows: superintendents of basic administrative units, 10,200; superintendents of intermediate units of school administration, 2,500; principals of elementary schools, full-time, 35,000, and part-time (head teachers), 38,000; high school principals, 21,000; supervisors of instruction, 22,000 (about 14,000 in elementary schools and 8,000 in high schools). How many of these employees will be needed in rural schools is problematical. The number needed for schools that serve pupils from a rural environment is also an estimate, but as pointed out above, it will probably be not less than 60 per cent of the total number.[2]

---

[1] Research Division, National Education Association. "Teachers in Public Schools." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, No. 4, December, 1949, p. 135. Data given here are estimates by the author. The distribution of teachers is based on the number teaching in the first eight grades and the number teaching in grades 9 to 12. Also see Chap. 1, Tables 3 and 6.

[2] These estimates are based on an estimate of the probable number of school administrative units that each of the states will have under reorganization. Such factors as the number of cities of various sizes, the number of counties, and the density of population in each of the states were considered. It was assumed that there should be at least a supervisor to each 40 teachers. An administrator for each basic district would be needed. The number of administrators of intermediate units was estimated according to whether a state has, or is likely to have, that type of organization. Among the superintendents will be about 950 in county-unit districts, most of which will have responsibility for both rural and urban pupils. Of the superintendents of intermediate units, perhaps 2,100 will be county superintendents and 400 will be superintendents of other units such as superintendency unions in New York and New England. See Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, pp. 63 and 261–262.

Other personnel needed is as follows: school bus drivers (many of whom will be part-time employees), 135,000; full-time employees for the operation and maintenance of the school plant, 154,000; clerical assistants, 62,000; school nurses, 20,000; counselors and guidance personnel, 50,000 for elementary school pupils and 30,000 for high school pupils; school librarians, 52,000; attendance supervisors, 12,000.

Other specialists needed are dentists, physicians, oral hygienists, psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and educational research specialists.[1] Adequate standards for estimating the number of persons required for these positions have not been developed.

There is need for additional research pertaining to the number of personnel needed and the number that should be trained annually if the schools are to offer the opportunities and perform the services necessary to a satisfactory modern educational program. What has been presented here is inadequate, but it is more than an educated guess.

Conditions Affecting Personnel. Too often the rural situation does not encourage the worker to seek a position in a rural community by preference and to remain there despite any attractions the city may offer.

Salaries. It is common knowledge that salaries of personnel in most rural communities are below those in the cities. The extent of this difference for the instructional staff is shown in Table 41. Down to 1941–1942, salaries in rural schools were about 50 per cent of urban salaries or lower. In 1947–1948, they had risen to 67.2 per cent.

TABLE 41. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARY PER MEMBER OF INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF IN URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1929–1930 TO 1947–1948[a]

School year	Urban	Rural	Rural as per cent of urban
1929–1930	$1,944	$ 979	50.4
1931–1932	1,951	930	47.7
1933–1934	1,735	787	45.4
1935–1936	1,818	827	45.5
1937–1938	1,952	864	44.3
1939–1940	1,955	959	49.1
1941–1942	2,013	1,018	50.6
1947–1948[b]	3,014	2,026	67.2

[a] Blose, David T. *Statistics of Schools in Urban and Rural Areas, 1941–1942.* Circular No. 231. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1945, Table 1.

[b] Estimate based on Table 52, Chap. 25.

---

[1] Helpful data will be found in the following article: Research Division, National Education Association. "Personnel and Relationships in School Health, Physical Education, and Recreation." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October, 1950, pp. 93–94.

Emphasis is given this matter by noting the number of teachers in country and city who receive low salaries. Table 42 shows the number of rural and urban teachers with salaries below $1,800 and below $1,500 as of 1948. Here again the situation in the rural areas is much more unfavorable than in cities.

TABLE 42. NUMBER OF TEACHERS RECEIVING ANNUAL SALARIES OF LESS THAN $1,800 AND $1,500, RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, SELECTED STATES, 1948[a]

State	Below $1,800		Below $1,500	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Alabama	8,182	632	5,135	181
Georgia	17,538	2,192	10,114	635
Kansas	3,152[b]	1,221[b]	2,358[b]	383[b]
Maine	1,579	494	207	132
Minnesota	2,894	19	714	0
Nebraska	4,400	1,550	2,600	550
Ohio	1,073	199	96	0
Tennessee	11,623	1,239	7,250	378
Virginia	8,196	290	3,295	61

[a] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 84.

[b] Includes elementary school teachers only.

Somewhat the same situation is found in the county superintendency. Comparable data for this group and for city superintendents are presented in Tables 43 and 44. Some county superintendents are reasonably well

TABLE 43. SALARIES OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS AND COMPARABLE OFFICERS, UNITED STATES, 1947–1948[a]

Median	$ 4,010
Highest	14,000
Lowest	100
Under $2,000	191
$2,000–2,499	365
$2,500–2,999	256
$3,000–3,499	325
$3,500–3,999	349
$4,000–4,999	805
$5,000–5,999	444
$6,000 and over	252
Total	2,987

[a] Cooper, Shirley, Chairman. *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1950, p. 186.

paid. In Alabama, California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Missouri, New Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, one or more superintendents receive $7,500 or more. Median salaries of $5,500 or more are paid only in Maryland and New Jersey. Among the low-paying states are Colorado ($1,800), Idaho ($2,400), Kansas ($2,080), Montana ($2,304), Nebraska ($2,100), Oklahoma ($2,100), South Dakota ($2,450), Washington ($2,250), and Wyoming ($2,500).[1] These latter salaries are scarcely what a good teacher should receive.

TABLE 44. MEDIAN SALARIES OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS IN CITIES OF DIFFERENT SIZE[a]

Size of city	1946–1947	1948–1949
500,000 and over	$14,333	$16,000
100,000–500,000	9,525	11,250
30,000–100,000	7,307	8,772
10,000– 30,000	5,856	6,830
5,000– 10,000	4,719	5,763
2,500– 5,000	4,225	5,106

[a] Research Division, National Education Association. "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-school Employees, 1948–1949." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, No. 2, April, 1949, pp. 47–52.

What makes the situation worse in some of the states is the arbitrary basis upon which the salary of the county superintendent is determined. In Colorado, the basis is total population, and the salaries vary from $100 (presumably for part-time work) to $3,000, according to the classification of the county. In New Mexico, fixed salaries of $1,600 to $2,500 are paid according to the classification of the county as regards the number of rural schoolhouses. Unfortunately, in some cases these salary provisions have been incorporated into the state constitution, but nevertheless restrictions should be removed as soon as practicable.

Salary Schedules. Definite salary policies that recognize qualifications and experience in an orderly schedule promote morale and efficiency of teachers and put a premium on successful teachers remaining in the profession as a life work. In 31 states minimum salaries for teachers are provided for by law. Some states provide a flat-rate minimum salary, while others classify teachers on the basis of preparation and then fix a flat minimum salary for each class. In 15 states the requirement consists of a schedule in which salaries are classified according to level of preparation and years of teaching experience. An example is Delaware, which requires that teachers with no degree be paid a minimum of $2,000 per year; with a bachelor's degree, $2,400; with a master's degree, $2,600; and with a doctor's degree, $3,000. In addition 10 annual increments of $160 each are specified, leading to salaries from $3,600 to $4,600 annually.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, Table D..

In many states the minimum salary requirement is a part of the state-aid plan for schools.

There is a marked trend toward single schedules for elementary and secondary school teachers. In 1948–1949 nearly 95 per cent of the schedules were of that type as compared to only 30.6 per cent ten years earlier. This type of schedule encourages a higher level of preparation among teachers and should result in a higher percentage of teacher-education candidates preparing for teaching in elementary schools, where the supply of teachers with high levels of education has been least.[1]

Unfortunately, the small local administrative units serving rural areas have made the least progress in establishing adequate salary schedules.

Retirement Security. Every state in the union and all territories of the United States have at least one law providing retirement benefits for teachers who have reached a specific age or who have served a specified number of years as a teacher or other professional school employee.[2] This policy is in keeping with the trend in private employment, with a long-established policy of the Federal government and several states to provide such benefits for their civil-service employees, and with the social-security benefits provided under the Federal social-security laws. It is a recognition of the fact that teachers and other educational employees are not likely to be able to save enough for old age or disability security in the absence of a definite and certain retirement-benefits plan.

Most of the retirement plans are not pensions. The benefits depend upon contributions by the beneficiary as a part of the contract for services. The state or the local district usually contributes an annual amount equal to the contribution of the employee. Pensions are usually provided for old teachers who were near the retirement age when the retirement plan was instituted.

Such a plan has the effect of increasing the tenure of teachers in the profession and of inducing more competent young people to enter teaching as a lifetime career.

Other Employment and Welfare Benefits. If the status of school employees is to compare favorably with the status of nearly all other public employees and an increasing number of private employees, certain other benefits should be made available such as sick leave with pay, vacation with pay, hospital and medical insurance or services, and either the benefits of workmen's compensation laws or similar programs. Most rural teachers do not now have any such benefits. If rural people expect to obtain and keep the services of competent career teachers they should adopt welfare programs comparable to those now found in most city school systems and in most other public and much private employment.[1]

---

[1] Research Division, National Education Association. "Teachers in Public Schools." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, No. 4, December, 1946, pp. 142–143.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 150–153.

Living Conditions. Too often teachers in farm areas and villages cannot find satisfactory living quarters in the neighborhood or community. They either have to live uncomfortably or they have to commute from some nearby city or larger village. This condition is not in the best interest of the school, the neighborhood or the community. It is generally advocated that teachers be residents and active citizens in the vicinity where the school is located. It is as much the duty of the citizens of the community and the responsible school officials to see that the teachers can obtain satisfactory living quarters as it is to employ teachers and provide otherwise for the school. Much educational improvement would, no doubt, result if rural people everywhere would discharge that responsibility.

Selection and Promotion. American education policy provides that a board of education select its executive officer and determine his compensation subject to state legislation. In local urban districts this policy is practically universal. In the county superintendency and comparable rural offices, other methods of selection are sometimes found. In the states having a supervisory union or district, selection is made by the board of education in 5 states and by some other body in 2 states. In the states having the county as the intermediate district, the county board of education performs this duty in 4 states, other boards in 3 states, while in 20 states he is elected by the people. In the county-unit states the county board makes the choice in 8 states, another group in 1 state, and in 3 states he is elected by popular vote.[2] The method of popular election is a holdover from conditions that prevailed when the county superintendent was considered to be a political officer. It will probably tend to disappear as boards responsible for education on the county level are created. Appointment by some group or person other than the responsible board of education for the county or similar area can hardly be defended as good policy; it takes from the board of education a very important function in developing the school system.

Teachers in county-unit states should be nominated by the county superintendent and the local community district principal together, and appointment should be made by the county board. Sometimes, as in Maryland, an appointment may be rejected by the local school representative but not more than two times. This gives assurance that citizens in a school attendance area shall have a chance to make their wishes known on this matter but they may not hold up an appointment indefinitely. In intermediate districts the superintendent should have the responsibility of nominating the teacher where there is no local principal; but this policy is not universal.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 148–150. See also Research Division, National Education Association. "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XX, No. 3, May, 1942, pp. 99–104.

[2] Summarized from Department of Rural Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 177–181.

Promotion in position or salary should be made upon the recommendation of the responsible administrative officers, who are presumed to be qualified to make judgments on a professional basis. This policy also is sometimes not followed in rural areas, especially with the small school which does not have an administrative officer employed by the local board. In such cases it is wise policy to utilize the opinion and recommendation of the superintendent of the intermediate unit.

Tenure. A competent teacher should be protected from dismissal on trivial grounds. This is not guaranteed in many states. As of 1947 the following situation prevailed:[1]

Degree of tenure	Number of states	
	Urban teachers	Rural teachers
Tenure in at least certain areas	26	10
Tenure optional in local districts	1	4
Spring notification for continuing the contracts	9	18
Long-term contracts permitted	3	2
No protection from year to year	9	14

Tenure should be based upon a period of provisional or probationary appointment. Three years appears to be fair for both teacher and community. Indeterminate tenure (*i.e.*, appointment for such a period as the teacher continues to render efficient service) in contrast to permanent tenure indicates that there is a two-way responsibility; the community is protected against the unprofessional teacher who fails to render constantly improved service because she believes she cannot be dismissed. The tenure situation should be improved in rural areas, and doubtless this will take place as a better organization of school districts makes it possible to ensure competent professional supervision and administration. Small local administrative units have usually made the administration of tenure laws all but impossible. There is no way, as in larger units, to transfer teachers to jobs in which they may be and often prove to be successful.

---

[1] Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association. *Teacher Tenure: Analysis and Appraisal.* Washington, D.C., 1947, pp. 11, 12.

It should also be observed that a good tenure law not only provides for protection of teachers who have given good and faithful service, but also provides a definite, certain, and dependable procedure for dismissing incompetent, insubordinate, and morally unfit teachers.

The situation as to tenure provisions is improving, but is yet unsatisfactory, especially as regards rural teachers. For example the tenure law in California does not apply to teachers in school districts that have less than 850 pupils in average daily attendance unless the board of the district elects to come under the tenure law.[1]

Amount of Preparation. Before discussing the nature of the preparation desirable for rural teachers and administrators, it will be useful to examine some of the present standards as to the amount of preparation now required or achieved.

Teachers. Unfavorable working conditions and low salaries for rural teachers, and low ideals of educational qualifications and standards on the part of many rural laymen, have long resulted in a disproportionate number of inexperienced and inadequately prepared teachers in rural schools. During the first decade of the present century there were 212,000 or more teachers in one-teacher schools instructing about 7,000,000 children.[2] According to the best estimates available for that time, about 45 per cent of those teachers were at least high school graduates, about 31 per cent had had some high school education, and 23 per cent had finished only the eighth grade or less. About 3 per cent of the total had had two years of normal school training and about 22 per cent had had some professional training in high school normal training classes.[3]

In the early 1930's the typical rural teacher in a one-teacher school was described thus:

> A young woman, unmarried, about twenty-four years of age, and of farm or village background. Her education consisted of 4 years of high school and one year or more of professional preparation, somewhat directed to rural needs. The experience of this typical rural teacher was 4.6 years during which time she had taught in two different rural schools. Her median annual salary in the fall of 1930 was $788 but during the year she received a salary reduction of 10 percent. She worked 8 months out of 12

---

[1] Committee on Tenure, National Education Association. *Critical Analysis of Teacher Tenure Legislation.* Washington, D.C., 1939, p. 4.

[2] Carney, Mabel. "The Education of Rural Teachers in the United States—a Backward Look." *Education of Teachers for Rural America.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1946, Chap. 1, p. 13.

[3] *Ibid.*

preparation of principals and superintendents of local districts, but information for 1936–1937 may be of some value. In that year about one-third of the superintendents in places under 500 population held a master's degree; almost half of those in places of 500 to 1,499 population; almost two-thirds in places of 1,500 to 2,499 population; and almost three-fourths in places of 2,500 to 4,999 population. Only a little over two-thirds of the superintendents in places over 10,000 held a master's degree, a fact which probably reflects the greater tendency for young men (who are commonly in the smaller systems) to pursue graduate work. In all probability the situation as regards preparation is now better than in 1936–1937.

The minimum preparation of county superintendents and comparable officers is presented in Table 46.

TABLE 46. PREPARATION REQUIRED OF THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OR COMPARABLE OFFICER[a] (Information for 45 states)

	Number of states requiring preparation of —						
	None specified	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years or more	Total
Supervisory-union or supervisory-district states	0	0	0	3	2	1	6
States with county as intermediate unit	2	7	1	11[b]	6[c]	0	27
County-unit states	1	0	0	7[d]	4	0	12

[a] Summarized from Cooper, Shirley, Chairman. *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1950, Table B, pp. 177–181.

[b] In Missouri there are alternatives that accept less than this standard. In Nebraska a lower standard is accepted for counties with a small population.

[c] In Kansas and Michigan the standard for counties with small populations is lower.

[d] In Tennessee the requirement is 2 years of preparation and the passing of a special examination.

In 21 states the minimum requirement is four years of college preparation;[1] in 12 states, five years; and in one state (Connecticut), six years. In 11 states the requirement is still below college graduation or its approximate equivalent. There is an increasing tendency for states to recognize the desirability of a superintendent having special preparation for his position by requiring that he hold an administrative certificate. At least 13 states now have such a provision.

Character of Desirable Preparation for Rural School Personnel. The legal requirements indicate but little about the kind and quality of preparation necessary for successful and competent service in school systems that accommodate rural children. It is proposed to discuss here the nature of the preparation needed by rural school personnel.

---

[1] Note the exceptions in the footnotes of Table 46.

Teachers of One-teacher Schools. Although the 60,000 one-teacher schools[1] will become fewer over the years as district reorganization continues, there will be, for many years to come, a considerable number of such schools. Even in some reorganized community districts it will not infrequently be desirable to continue one-teacher and other small elementary schools as branch schools within the larger unit.

Too often the one-teacher school has been thought of as the least demanding of all positions in the profession. Actually, it is doubtful if there is any other teaching position that is so difficult and requires such broad preparation if the job is well done.

What are the special obligations placed upon this type of teacher? She has to teach all or several of the first six to eight grades; she must plan some type of program that will permit combination and alternation of classes if she is to have even reasonably adequate time for them; frequently she is janitor-engineer of her school and must see that satisfactory conditions of lighting, heating, sanitation, and health prevail; she directs the playground activities not of one grade only but of several; she is the librarian for the school and perhaps for the neighborhood; she must know how to make the school lunch a practical demonstration of good nutritional practices; she should have some skill (and considerable skill if the services of special teachers are not available to her) in music, art, industrial arts, and nature study; she is usually responsible for the selection of teaching supplies and equipment; she should be able to organize and cooperate with a parent-teacher association; she has responsibility for the 4-H club activities of her older pupils; she is usually responsible for community activities if there are to be any centered in the school; and she is the educational representative for the school in her particular neighborhood.

Teachers who expect to go into one-teacher schools (and even into schools with two or three teachers) should be given instruction in dealing with these and other unique problems. There are two basic approaches: (1) A special course could be offered for such persons. The difficulty in this procedure is that in many institutions there is not a sufficiently large group seeking this type of position to justify the use of the resources of a teachers college. (2) A more general course could be offered for all elementary teachers (or for an important segment of them) in which the problems of the one-teacher and other small school are considered. Integrated with this course or closely associated with it should be apprentice teaching in the small school. Perhaps the best solution to the problem is in-service education under the guidance of a supervisor skilled in this type of teaching.

---

[1] The number was 75,000 in 1947–1948, but the rate of reduction in number has been about 10,000 per year.

The teacher in a small school has important community responsibilities, and in preparation for them instruction should be offered in rural sociology. Included in this course, among numerous other topics, should be the concept of neighborhood and community and the functions of each; standards of living of rural people and how these might be improved through education; health, recreation, and welfare problems of the neighborhood; rural organizations, such as the Home Bureau, the Farm Bureau, the Grange, the National Farmers' Union, and their functions in rural life; delinquency in rural areas and how cooperative action may be directed to reduce it; the nature of conflict among neighborhood and community groups and the possibility of resolving some of the chief antagonisms through a cooperative educational program.

The teacher in a small rural school should have some understanding of the economics of the rural areas, either through a separate course or through one that may be combined with rural sociology and called "problems of rural life" (or similar title). Among these economic problems are the amount and sources of income of rural people; how the income status of the community affects school financing; how local funds may be supplemented from county and state sources; why rural income is, in normal times, not comparable with urban income; what policies of local, state, or national organizations may influence income trends over the years; cooperative marketing and similar activities; and other problems directly related to rural living.

Other Rural Teachers. In a good community school, each elementary teacher should have charge of one grade only (or at most, two grades), so that their special educational problems may not be too complicated. In the high school, teachers will often need to be prepared in more than one subject. They should be taught to assist in dealing with the dropout problem; they should know what night classes or correspondence study may be desirable for those who wish further preparation; how to alternate courses; and how to adjust the curriculum to the life needs of pupils in rural areas. Both elementary school and high school teachers should understand thoroughly the theory of the community-school program; how to make any survey that may be necessary to identify needs of rural pupils and their community; and how to implement and develop such a program. Such problems as these may be made a part of any general course in elementary or secondary education. Too often they are neglected.

Administrators for Community Schools. The administrative head of the rural community school has many responsibilities placed upon him. He should be the person to whom the community turns for advice and leadership on every type of educational question, not merely those relating to the school. Accordingly, he needs to understand the social, economic, and governmental problems of the community as they may affect the school and its program.

Usually this leader will have had preparation for teaching in the elementary school or a certain subject or subjects in the high school and will have had experience as a teacher. As a result of this preparation, he should have acquired the background of general knowledge that comes from an undergraduate program and from general professional preparation represented by courses in educational psychology, history and philosophy of education, the curriculum, and methods of teaching.

His special professional preparation for the superintendency is suggested by some of the problems that he is certain to face. He should know what the rural community school is; how it may be organized; how to strengthen consolidations of districts and cooperate with constituent groups; and the place of his district in the whole educational system of the state. He should know how to modify gradually the school's curriculum to make it serve better the present and probable future needs of rural children. He needs to know why pupils drop out of school and what to do about it: the extent of the dropping out in his school; the symptoms of probable school leaving; the activities that will tend to retain the pupils who should remain in school; how to develop the enthusiasm of teachers for assisting with this problem; and how to influence the pupils and parents concerned.

He should understand the theory of the community school; know how to define the several needs with which such a program might deal; know how to organize the program and how to get community understanding and support.

He should know how to diagnose the needs of handicapped children and how to set up programs to meet their educational needs.

He should know how to implement an adult program that will be vital to farm and village people; how to organize guidance and counseling services; and how to organize a health program in the rural community.

As a new community school is organized, he should know how to plan a 12-grade school building (with any required branch buildings) rather than the large elementary or secondary school of the city type.

He should inform himself about the young people of his community who wish to find opportunities in the large village or city and should do all he can to prepare them for their work in the new environment to which they may migrate.

He should know how to deal with the several aspects of the transportation program and how to develop a financial accounting system for a small school.

These are illustrations, merely, of special problems that the rural community principal or superintendent will face. In fact this entire volume deals with his problems.

The administrator should understand many of the social, economic, and governmental problems of the rural community. His preparation in sociology should give him insight into such problems as these: the concept of primary, secondary, and tertiary communities and their functions; how to identify these communities; the rural village and its functions; the occupational life of farm and village people; the composition of the population, including national, racial, or other special groups; standards of living; rural recreation, libraries, health, and welfare; rural migration; community councils; rural-urban relationships. He should know how to make a community survey, he should understand the functions and programs of the important organizations in the rural areas, and especially he should know how to deal with rural people.

Education in economics should give him, among other things, an understanding of rural income, its amount, sources, and trends; the nature of village business activities; cooperative marketing policies and practices; conservation; taxation; and governmental farm policies, including farm credit and price stabilization.

In government he should know, among other matters, how the rural areas of his state are organized, what services the several governmental units provide citizens, how these may be utilized in the school program, and how governmental organization and functions may be made more economical and effective.

The importance of the administrator's having an understanding of these social, economic, and governmental problems has been aptly expressed by the National Conference of Professors of Education, as follows:

> One of the outstanding characteristics of the American scene is rapid social change. Each change to some degree, and the sum of all changes to a large degree, results in a need for a continuous modification of educational activities. The unique position of the school administrator carries with it a responsibility for an adequate analysis of change and a correct interpretation of the impact of change upon the relationships among the various agencies concerned with the general welfare. It is imperative that the school administrator be thoroughly grounded in both the background and the nature of the social order if he is to render the services required. Educational progress is possible only as school administrators develop the basic capacities needed for the analysis and interpretation of social change.[1]

---

[1] National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (D. R. Davies, Secretary). *Developing Leaders for Education.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, p. 22 (multigraphed).

To prepare the administrator in the knowledge and for the duties suggested above in both general and rural education and in sociology, economics, and government requires not only a larger vision of his job than has ordinarily been held but a longer period of preparation. While all states have not yet reached this standard, the minimum should represent a master's degree with reasonable certainty that one or even two years beyond will be required in the not too distant future. An important part of this preparation should include apprenticeship experience in a rural community school where the administrator-in-training may secure a realistic understanding of the types of problems outlined above. In 1950 the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration reported that such opportunities were being offered in at least 15 institutions.

In addition to the understandings and abilities presented above is the ability of the administrator to be a democratic and creative leader in his community in aiding his people to become aware of their educational needs.

Not all the preparation outlined above will be preservice, nor, in all probability, should it be. Many young men will begin their administrative careers as soon as state certification requirements permit. Their further preparation through summer school or other in-service facilities of colleges and universities will follow and will be more illuminating because of their experience in the field.

Most administrative beginners go into the smaller, usually the rural, communities. Many colleges and universities are not sufficiently realistic in their programs of preparation; they teach "general" administration (frequently the administration of urban schools) to the neglect of the adaptations required in or special problems posed by the rural community.

Intermediate District Superintendents. As was pointed out in Chapter 20, the intermediate district is at different stages of development in the different states and, in most of them, should be considered as a unit still in the process of emerging into one that can be fully effective. How rapidly the desired development will take place will depend, in part, upon state educational leadership in securing favorable legislation and, in part, upon the increasing insight shown by the superintendents as to the possibilities of their jobs.

In the more developed intermediate district, the superintendent will commonly have had experience as a rural community principal or superintendent. He should, therefore, have had preparation in rural education, sociology, economics, and government similar to that outlined in the preceding section of this chapter. In addition, this intermediate superintendent should have a clear concept as to what his district could be and how it might be organized. This requirement also indicates an understanding as to what constitutes a desirable local district, how it should be organized, what its functions and program might be, and what should be its relationship with the intermediate district. Special skill is needed in administering services without a line-staff authority and in inducing cooperative relationships and shared services among the constituent districts of which the superintendent is the intermediate administrator (see Chapters 19 and 20).

While states may differ as to the type and functions of an intermediate district, the superintendent should, in general, be informed about such special services as guidance; health; vocational education; handicapped children; constructive attendance supervision with its utilization of the visiting teacher, the guidance counselor, the nurse, the attendance supervisor; the direction of transportation; budget making; other services; and adult education. He should understand these services sufficiently well that he will know how to define the need for each in his district, what types of program should be envisioned for each service, how it should be established, organized, and financed, and especially how to administer the services in a cooperative way.

Other more traditional functions of this officer may be studied in the expectation that they may be made more efficient: teacher evaluation; improving the county institute; working with boards of education; making statistical reports of basic school functions; getting a more accurate census; preparing a more challenging report to the state superintendent.

For the intermediate administrator much of his further preparation will be acquired while in service. State institutions having responsibility in this field may, therefore, find a real opportunity in providing a series of institutes during the seasons of least pressure for officers of this type. Through preliminary planning with this group, a program may be devised that will cover, in the course of a few years, the more important problems in this field.

Superintendents of County Units. Some of the 959 county units now in existence will include only rural territory; others will have responsibility also for one or more cities or large villages. Either the superintendent himself or an assistant in charge of the smaller schools should be specially prepared to deal with the problems of the rural communities. Since many of the county-unit systems have not gone far toward providing the educational services to be desired, the superintendent needs to inform himself about the types of needs outlined above for both the community superintendent and the intermediate-district superintendent.

State county superintendents' associations can be a powerful influence in developing a better understanding of the leadership opportunities in their territory. A good illustration of what may be done is seen in West Virginia. With the help of the state university, the county superintendents are making a united attack upon their leadership problems.

The National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents that held its fifth meeting in October, 1950, gives promise of doing for this rural group what the American Association of School Administrators has done for city superintendents over the years.

Other Employees for Services to Rural Schools. As has been indicated in previous sections of this chapter and in other chapters of this book, many employees other than those whose educational preparation has been indicated in this section will be needed. Many of them will serve both rural and urban pupils, especially many rural pupils attending school, usually high school, in urban centers. Such employees, too, need the fundamental understandings of rural life and of the rural environment, occupations, and institutions that are needed to serve rural pupils only. These are the employees whose educational preparation is most likely to be deficient in these respects. Teacher-education institutions and graduate schools for school administrators have a grave responsibility in equipping their students to meet their evident responsibilities.

Professional Organizations for School Personnel. Much of the progress of public education, especially during the last half century, has been greatly influenced by local, state, and national professional organizations. Not only have programs of educational administration, finance, standards, curriculum adjustment and improvement, and teacher welfare been developed and sponsored by the professional organizations in education, but such organizations have strengthened the morale of the teaching profession, improved its relationships with the public, and lent dignity and recognition to it.

The chief of all the national organizations of the educational professions is the National Education Association of the United States. In each of the states is a state organization. Both the national and state associations have many local affiliates. In all in 1950 there were nearly 454,000 members of the National Education Association, or about 45 per cent of all public elementary and secondary professional employees. Each of the state associations is affiliated with the national association. In all in 1950 the state associations had over 856,000 members, or about 88 per cent of the public elementary and secondary professional employees. Over 508,000 of these educators were members of local associations.[1]

The rural teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents constitute about 45 per cent of the membership of the National Education Association, a per cent not far different from the per cent they are of the porfession in the nation.

---

[1] Research Division, "Teachers in Public Schools," pp. 156–157. Also see *NEA Handbook*, issued annually by the National Education Association.

It is an objective of the leaders of the profession to have as nearly as possible all members of the profession become active members of local, state, and national associations. In the not too distant future that objective bids fair to be attained.

In the National Education Association are 29 special departments, among which are the Department of Rural Education with its Division of County and Rural Area Superintendents, the Department of Classroom Teachers, the Department of Elementary School Principals, the Department of Secondary School Principals, the American Association of School Administrators, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and many departments in specialized subject-matter fields. In addition to membership in local, state, and national associations, most rural teachers, supervisors, and administrators should be affiliated with the Department of Rural Education and one or more other departments of their special interest.

Much of the future progress in American education depends upon the strength of the professional organizations of teachers and school administrators.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. In your county, how do the teachers in one-teacher schools compare with village and city teachers as to salary, experience, tenure in present positions, amount of preparation, and living conditions?

2. How do rural school principals and the county superintendents compare with the village and city superintendents on the factors given in Problem 1?

3. What provisions are made in the laws of your state regarding salaries, tenure, retirement pay, disability pay, hospital and other health services, leaves of absence, and sick leave for the professional educational workers in the rural schools?

4. Outline a desirable program for the welfare items enumerated in Problem 3 for educational workers in your state.

5. Make a statement of the arguments against the selection of the county superintendent of schools by popular election.

6. For your county, make a list of the administrative, supervisory, and special services needed for a satisfactory school program and a list of personnel needed to perform those services. How do your lists compare with the present situation?

7. Prepare a list of the functions and services that ought to be performed by the administrator of a school system serving rural people. For each item on the list state the characteristics that are unique in a rural area. For each of the items and its unique rural characteristics indicate the professional educational preparation that the administrator would need.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association. *Standards for Superintendents of Schools.* Washington, D.C., 1939.

Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, National Education Association. *Teacher Tenure: Analysis and Appraisal.* Washington, D.C., 1947.

———. *Teacher Tenure Manual.* Washington, D.C., 1950.

Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, National Education Association. *Teacher Leaves of Absence.* Washington, D.C., 1945.

Department of Rural Education, National Education Association (Shirley Cooper, ed.). *The County Superintendent of Schools in the United States.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1950.

——— (Kate V. Wofford, ed.). *Education of Teachers for Rural America.* Washington, D.C., 1946.

——— (Marcia Everett, ed.). *The Rural Supervisor at Work.* Washington, D.C., 1949.

Greider, Calvin, and Ballou, Stephen V. *Colorado Rural Teachers: Their Living and Working Conditions.* Boulder, Colo.: University of Colorado, 1947.

National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (D. R. Davies, Secretary). *Developing Leaders for Education.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947.

———. *Educational Leaders: Their Functions and Preparation.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948.

National Council on Teacher Retirement and Research Division, National Education Association. *Analysis of Local Provisions for Teacher Retirement.* Washington, D.C., 1947.

National Education Association. *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America.* Washington, D.C., 1944.

Research Division, National Education Association. "The Legal Status of the Public School Teachers." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXV, No. 2, April, 1947, pp. 27–70.

———. "Personnel and Relationships in School Health, Physical Education, and Recreation." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXVIII, No. 3, October, 1950, p. 83–91.

———. "The Rural Teacher's Economic Status." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XVII, No. 1, January, 1939. pp. 3–61.

———. "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-school Employees, 1948–49." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXVII, No. 2, April, 1949, pp. 43–71.

———. "Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XX, No. 3. May, 1942, pp. 83–116.

———. "Teachers in Public Schools." *Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXVII, No. 4, December, 1949, pp. 127–159.

CHAPTER 22

PUPIL TRANSPORTATION AS AN ESSENTIAL SERVICE

The transportation of pupils has become "big business." In 1949–1950, 6,263,704 pupils were transported at a cost of $180,182,261. This constituted approximately 4.2 per cent of the total current expenditures for public education in full-time day schools in that year. Since much remains to be provided in transportation service before all reasonable needs are met, it is obvious that the figures cited above will become considerably larger during the next decade or two. While the service is undoubtedly an essential one if adequate education opportunities are to be made available to rural children and youth, the profession has a responsibility for scrutinizing its policies and practices in this activity in order that costs be kept as low as is consistent with safe and efficient service. As much of the tax dollar as possible should go into the strictly educational program.

Development of This Service. The transportation of pupils at public expense in the United States is only about eighty years old. A law passed in Massachusetts in 1869 authorized local towns to raise money by "taxation or otherwise" for the conveyance of pupils to and from the public schools. By 1900, 18 states had passed such laws. While all states now have recognized that pupil transportation should be a public rather than a private responsibility, the several laws show significant differences. Some of these differences will be pointed out in later sections of this chapter.

Table 47 presents some significant data showing the development of transportation during the last twenty-three years.

Planning the Transportation Program. How does a school system make plans for the transportation needed and what problems arise as these plans are put into effect? These matters must be dealt with whether the responsible agency is a local school district representing a single community or a county or intermediate district representing a number of local communities. Since at present it is the individual community that has responsibility for transportation in most of our states, the planning and the administration of the program will, in the following pages, be considered from the point of view of that type of district.

TABLE 47. DATA SHOWING GROWTH OF PUPIL TRANSPORTATION, 1926–1950[a]

Year	No. of schools using busses	No. of pupils carried daily	No. of busses in school operation	Miles of route (one way)	Cost	Per cent of total expenditures
1926	13,874	875,462	32,778	316,045	$ 23,430,195	1.5
1930	16,600	1,480,000	45,000	451,000	34,050,000	1.8
1935	28,240	2,920,000	71,850	925,000	52,620,000	3.3[b]
1940	44,250	3,968,000	87,300	1,270,000	76,053,000	3.8
1945	40,000	4,700,000	80,000	1,725,000	93,500,000	3.8
1950	43,813	6,263,704	104,179	2,286,879	180,182,761	4.2[c]

[a] From census of school-bus transportation as reported in *Bus Transportation*, Vol. 6, p. 72; Vol. 10, p. 70; Vol. 15, p. 76; Vol. 20, p. 50, January; Vol. 25, No. 1, p. 69, January; Vol. 30, p. 40, February. These data can be considered as approximately accurate only, since estimates have been made when state reports were not received. These data cover both busses operated for schools under contract by private concerns and state- or school-owned busses. It is estimated that a certain number of vehicles (varying from 4,000 to 6,000 for different years) are used only part time in school service and should not be classified as school busses. They are not included in this table. The percentage of total expenditures is computed from figures giving the current expense for full-time day schools as reported by the U.S. Office of Education.

[b] Since the total cost of schools is not available for the year 1934–1935, this percentage has been computed by averaging the costs for 1933–1934 and 1935–1936. It is very close to being an accurate percentage.

[c] This percentage is based upon 1947–1948 expenditures (the latest available) and can, therefore, be an approximate figure only.

The Transportation Map. Such a map is needed both for planning and for administrative purposes. This map should be sufficiently large (perhaps 36 inches wide, with length in proportion, so that important information can be recorded); should be mounted on cork carpet or Celotex board so that pins may be easily inserted; and should show all roads of varying types and the homes of all children who may need transportation.[1] Pins with heads of different colors may be used to indicate children of different grade levels, *e.g.*: under school age; kindergarten; grades 1 to 6; grades 7 to 9; grades 10 to 12. There is also value in using symbols to give other information: waiting stations of different types (*e.g.* homes, shelters, public buildings, business houses, etc.); separate elementary schools that are a part of the local school system; vacant homes; homes with children who have dropped out of school; and the like.

---

[1] For an illustration of such a map, see Butterworth, Julian E., and Ruegsegger, Virgil. *Administering Pupil Transportation.* Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1941, insert at p. 5.

Meadows[1] lists 16 hazards frequently found on transportation routes and suggests that they be indicated on the map by symbols as follows:

A	Blind curve
B-1	Narrow bridge
B-2	Unguarded bridge
B-3	Unsafe approach
B-4	Bridge needing repair
C	Bad culvert
D	Deep ditch or wash
F	Fill unguarded
G	Needs gravel, slippery
H	Dangerous hill
M	Mud hole or bog
UT	U-turn
RT	Right angle turn to right
LT	Right angle turn to left
X	Railroad crossing
Y	Highway crossing

Symbols for other hazards may be developed as needed. Placing these on the map tends to make everyone who examines it aware of the hazards and may stimulate action by those concerned. It will be found useful also to place on or near the map a sheet of paper showing bus number; capacity: drivers' names; code color of routes; route number; number of elementary, secondary, and nonresident pupils; daily mileage; year and make of bus; etc. Such a sheet will save time when a question about a particular bus or route comes up.

Determining Local Policies. A local district has the opportunity to determine many transportation policies that are not inconsistent with state law or state regulations. Among the policies which should be determined by the board of education before the planning of the local transportation program is completed are the following:

1. *How far and under what circumstances should pupils be required to walk?* Approximately half the states specify the distance from school that makes the provision of transportation service by the district desirable or necessary. This distance varies from 1 mile in Louisiana to 4 miles in South Dakota. In some of the states a longer distance is specified for the older pupils than for the younger ones. Thus, in Florida, children seven to nine years of age are exempted from compulsory school attendance if they live more than 2 miles from the schoolhouse and transportation is not provided, while the distance is 3 miles for pupils ten to sixteen years of age. The most commonly indicated distances are 1½ to 2 and 2½ miles. In the states not specifying distance, transportation is to be provided where it is deemed desirable.

Assuming, however, that the local district has established or is establishing a transportation program and the state gives the board of education discretionary power, which pupils should be transported? The answer is to be found in the common-sense evaluation of the situation by the board upon the recommendation of the principal or superintendent. Obviviously, those who live over a reasonable distance from the school should be transported. One-half mile seems not too far for an elementary child to walk. However, even within this distance transportation may be desirable if the child is very young or is in poor physical condition or there are significant weather or traffic hazards. Walking is good exercise that any normal child should engage in under normal conditions.

---

[1] Meadows, Austin R. *Safety and Economy in School Bus Transportation.* Montgomery, Ala., 1940, p. 167.

2. *What should be the maximum time on the road for pupils who are transported?* One hour each way has frequently been used as such a standard for high school pupils, with forty-five minutes for elementary pupils. While it would be satisfying to be able to apply a lower standard, it must be recognized that even a longer period may be necessary if isolated children are to be given the right kind of educational opportunity. On long hauls a policy of "first on in the morning, first off at night" will reduce the travel for many of the children.

It is to be hoped that in the not too far distant future we shall have the information on this and many other standards of transportation practice that will enable us to see what is actually being done. Often we are willing to adjust ourselves to a seemingly long time on the road when we know that others are driving under circumstances even less favorable. For example, studies recently made in New York gave the data shown in the accompanying tabulation regarding length of haul and time required in central schools. The first group of schools includes the Adirondack region —an area of heavy snowfall. The second group includes the Catskill region. These conditions explain the relatively large mileage and time on

Section of state	No. of schools included	No. of busses	One-way mileage		Minutes on road (one-way)	
			Mean	Range[a]	Mean	Range[a]
14 northern counties[b]	59	296	20.3	4.3–35.8	43	11–103
20 central and southeastern counties[c]	57	369	18.7	7.0–37.5	38	7–74

[a] These ranges are the means of all routes, both shortest and longest, with regard to both mileage and time on road. The ranges for individual routes were greater. In the central and southeastern counties for example, the shortest individual route was 1.9 miles, the longest 51.0 miles.

[b] Carnal, Clark C., and Snyder, Edgar F. *Current Practices in Pupil Transportation in the Central Rural Schools of Northern New York.* Master's Problem. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1946, p. 31.

[c] Bettinger, Herbert C. *A Study of Pupil Transportation in the Central Rural Schools of Central and Southeastern New York State.* Master's Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1947, pp. 59, 74.

the road of a few routes. Both mileage and time are computed from the pickup point of the first pupil to the school.

3. *Should transportation be provided through district-owned or contract vehicles?* This is one of the most important policies to be established, and it merits special attention. In making decision, three factors should be kept in mind: safety, efficiency, and cost.

It may be argued that district ownership is likely to give greater safety and possibly greater efficiency since such ownership involves no profit motive. In fact, a few studies of specific situations appear to justify this conclusion.[1] Under the contract system there may be a tendency to increase profits by employing less than the most competent drivers and mechanics and by taking risks with equipment that may not be in first-class condition. Under conditions where a contract is made with the owner of a single vehicle or of a small number of vehicles and where the award of the contract is made to the lowest bidder without adequate appraisal of the quality of the service rendered, the safety and efficiency elements may easily be pushed into the background. However, it may well be that, in the future, private concerns, operating in a large area such as a county or even a group of counties, may enter this field. When and if this development takes place, we would urge that every precaution that is possible must be taken to assure both safety and efficiency if the districts are to use this service over a period of years. Such a plan would make it necessary to develop a formula or similar device for determining when a proposed contract price is reasonable. It is likely also to require a contract covering a period of several years in order to justify the considerable investment in vehicles on the part of the contracting company. The question at issue here is whether private enterprise under favorable conditions can provide the service better than can a public agency whose primary concern is not that of operating a transportation system.

There is one aspect of efficiency—flexibility in meeting changed conditions—in which district ownership clearly has the advantage. If the routing needs to be changed during the year or if more special trips are required than were anticipated, no one outside the schools needs to be consulted.

While the cost of transportation service is secondary to safety and efficiency, it is, naturally, an important matter. Data such as those presented in Table 48 have sometimes been used to show that district ownership is, usually, much cheaper than contracting.

However, as Pope indicates, the accuracy of such data is often open to serious challenge because the items included in the two systems are not the same. For example, the time given by the principal to the manage-

---

[1] Dawson, Howard A. "Transportation of Pupils." *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941, pp. 1313, 1314.

TABLE 48. COMPARISON OF TRANSPORTATION COSTS UNDER DISTRICT OWNERSHIP AND CONTRACTING[a]

	Annual per-pupil cost		Cost per bus-mile	
	District-owned	Contract	District-owned	Contract
Alabama (1940).......	$ 8.86	$11.50	$0.129	$0.140
Arkansas (1931).......	15.21	18.84	0.189	0.24
California (1927)......	44.96	54.40	0.202	0.259
Indiana (1947)........	......	......	0.192	0.254
New York (1933)......	32.98	45.49		
New York (1947)......	43.95	45.74		
Utah (1932)..........	17.76	31.30	0.192	0.347

[a] Pope, Farnham G. *The Cost and the Quality of School Bus Transportation in Certain District-owned and Contract Systems in the Central Schools of New York State.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1949, pp. 3–5.

ment of the transportation system should be included in transportation costs. Yet this is seldom done. Under the contract system, management costs must be included if the system is to operate on a sound business basis. Under this system, the principal must continue to perform some services (*e.g.*, the approval of routes so as to ensure that some pupils are not kept on the road an unreasonable time, facilitating the loading and unloading of pupils, the handling of disciplinary problems, the checking of proposed contracts) but, obviously, less is required of him than if he directs the entire transportation program. Sometimes district-owned costs do not include the costs of vehicle depreciation, of rent for the storage of vehicles, of insurance, and the like. Contract transportation must include such costs. A uniform system of classifying transportation costs is, then, absolutely necessary to making a sound judgment as to the relative cost of the district-owned and the contract systems and is useful for other purposes. The few states that now publish transportation costs use such different methods that the data are largely without value for comparative purposes.

Pope undertook to determine, for the year 1946–1947, the relative costs of the two systems in New York central schools.[1] After classifying all cost items, except administration, so that the same items, with the one exception, were included in the two systems, Pope secured the unit costs shown in the accompanying tabulation. This study, including as it does the cost of certain transportation functions that in other studies are charged to the general school account, shows less difference in the costs of the two systems, on the whole, than those given in Table 48. Pope's data show that the mean annual pupil cost is $5.56, or about 13 per cent less under the district ownership system and that the mean bus-mile cost is $0.032, or about 10 per cent less. However, some of the contract systems had lower costs than did those using district ownership, and the critical ratio—a statistical measure for determining whether there is a significant difference between the two groups of costs over and above that attributable to chance—was too low to warrant the conclusion that district ownership is always a more economical method of providing transportation. Further study in other situations is needed before we can justify a generalization on this matter.

---

[1] Pope, Farnham G. *The Cost and the Quality of School Bus Transportation in Certain District-owned and Contract Systems in the Central Schools of New York State.* Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1949. Since New York uses district ownership rather commonly, this study deals with only 68 central schools—all the 34 schools using the contract method only, and an equal number using district ownership. The latter cases were selected so as to match the contract schools on the basis of certain significant factors (see pp. 56–60 of the study).

	Mean	Range	Q_1	Median	Q_3
Annual per-pupil cost:					
District-owned	\$43.72	\$23.36–\$70.99	\$34.44	\$44.07	\$49.45
Contract	49.28	22.95– 99.47	36.89	42.24	57.04
Cost per bus-mile:					
District-owned	\$0.306	\$0.193–\$0.468	\$0.252	\$0.283	\$0.345
Contract	0.338	0.207– 0.596	0.274	0.322	0.413

Despite the lack of adequate data regarding the effect on safety, efficiency, and economy of these two systems, the judgment may be expressed that district ownership is likely to become much more common in the immediate future and that this trend will continue unless private enterprise of a more effective type than we have had comes into the picture.

In fact, Hutchins[1] has noted the trend in this direction. In 1945, he reported that 47.9 per cent of the busses were owned by the school in 1941. Busses purchased between January 1, 1942, and July 31, 1945, were owned by the schools to the extent of 80.3 per cent with marked variations between the different sections of the country. "On the basis of these figures," Hutchins says, "it could be calculated that the present status (1945) might show approximately 54% of the school busses of the nation now owned by the schools."

As district ownership becomes more common, serious consideration should be given to assigning responsibility for transportation to the intermediate district. With a job sufficiently large to warrant the employment of a skilled supervisor of transportation, it may be expected that costs can be cut by reducing overlapping of routes, making quantity purchases of supplies and equipment, establishing repair centers, and instituting similar policies of efficient management (see a later section in this chapter).

---

[1] Hutchins, Clayton D. "School Ownership of Buses." *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 43, 44.

4. *Should auxiliary routes be established?* Yes, providing the distance to the main route is too great because of age or physical condition of the children, or because of hazards to safety due to isolation, weather, or other factors. No general rules ought to be laid down by the state; local officials are in the best position to evaluate each situation. The type of conveyance used on these subsidiary routes will naturally depend upon the number of pupils and the condition of the roads. Commonly, a father or mother collects the children in a regular automobile or station wagon. Fair compensation should, of course, be made for this service.

5. *If vehicles are district-owned, how should they be stored and serviced?* On circular routes (those that start at the school and circle back to it), vehicles will usually be stored on or near the school grounds. On "shoestring" routes, it saves travel if the vehicle can be stored at or near the end of the route. In the latter situation, the problem is to find a storage space that is reasonably safe from fire.

Many districts are now building their own garages. In the New York studies referred to above, 50 per cent of the schools in the northern counties stored their busses in school-owned garages; in the central and southeastern counties, 57.1 per cent were so stored. The relative cost of storage in a school-owned and in a private garage can be readily determined by an analysis of the particular situation.

Servicing may also be done in the school-owned garage by the school's own mechanic or staff of mechanics or it may be done in a private garage. Featherston's bulletin on bus maintenance recommends the number and kinds of mechanics desirable for district-owned fleets of varying size.[1]

There are certain advantages in having the servicing (with the possible exception of a major overhaul) done in the school garage: the school authorities can be more certain that every difficulty is cared for as soon as it becomes evident; if the mechanics meet the requirements as drivers, there is probably some saving in total cost; and, if properly supervised, a limited number of pupils can be given shop experience with motor vehicles.

Laying Out the Routes. When the data regarding the pupils to be transported have been recorded and policies such as those described in the preceding paragraphs have been decided upon, the principal is then ready to plan the specific routes that will best serve his pupils. He will probably try, so far as possible, to lay out circular routes, since such a route requires little or no retracing of roads and permits the storage of the bus in a garage at or near the school.

---

[1] Featherston, E. Glenn. *School Bus Maintenance.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1948, pp. 38–42.

Since, usually, more than one system of routes may be laid out, the administrator should study all possibilities before making a decision. This decision will be influenced by such factors as the comparative length of the alternative routes; the time needed to cover these routes; the number of subsidiary routes required; the number of pickup points and the nature of the special provision that should be made at these points; the types of hazards on the routes; and the capacity of the vehicles available. There is no substitute for good sense in weighing such factors in the process of arriving at a desirable plan of routing. By putting down in parallel columns the significant data for two or more alternative routes, the principal will be able to make more objective judgments. Before making final decision, he will wish to traverse each route in the type of vehicle to be used, will establish a tentative time schedule for each stop, and note problems that are likely to arise. He will then connect, on the transportation map, the pins on each route by a thread, using a different color for each route. Where the route is modified, the thread can be easily changed.[1]

Health and Safety Factors. Three factors are of prime importance: the vehicle, the driver, and the road.

The selection of a vehicle that meets desirable standards for safe and efficient transportation of pupils is now a comparatively simple matter. In 1939, a conference sponsored by the National Council of Chief State School Officers suggested certain minimum standards for such vehicles. Since that date a similar group has been studying this problem and has issued revised reports from time to time. Each report deals with many details of both body and chassis. Since this report is readily available (see *Minimum Standards for School Buses* in the bibliography at the end of this chapter), details will not be discussed here. Also useful in this connection is a recent volume by Burton Belknap of the New York State Education Department (also listed in the bibliography).

Attention may be called to two standards of particular significance in providing greater safety. The Conference mentioned above has been active in trying to get all states to adopt a uniform color for school busses. This color is designated as "national bus chrome medium." This uniform color enables the driver of an automobile to recognize a school bus without difficulty so that he may take special precaution. Also needed, but not yet generally adopted, is a light that will flash when a bus is stopped or is turning. This flashing light should be placed sufficiently high on the bus that it may be seen readily by an approaching motorist. The usual device of using a dropping arm with the word "stop" (usually in letters too small to be read at a distance within which a car may be brought to a halt) is not sufficient.

---

[1] Various techniques may be used for laying out routes. Two others are described in the following: Meadows, *op. cit.*, pp. 156–171. Stapley, Maurice E. "Suggested Procedures for Securing Economical and Efficient Pupil Transportation." *Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University*, Vol. XXIII, No. 4, 1947, pp. 6–12.

Proper maintenance of the vehicle is important both for safety and for economy. Featherston's bulletin, *School Bus Maintenance* (see bibliography), gives a good analysis of maintenance problems and standards. This bulletin, with the two references suggested above, should be in the professional library of every school that maintains a transportation program.

Securing a good driver is of basic importance. The National Commission on Safety Education includes, in a recent bulletin on this subject,[1] the following standards:

1. Minimum age required by the state but not under 16 years.
2. Character: reliability; initiative; self-reliance; ability to get along with others; freedom from use of undesirable language; habits of cleanliness; moral conduct above reproach; honesty; freedom from addiction to habit-forming drugs or alcoholic beverages.
3. Emotional stability: patience, considerativeness; even temperament; calmness under stress.
4. Physical requirements: strength to handle bus with ease; normal use of hands, arms, feet and legs; freedom from mental, nervous, organic or functional disease likely to interfere with safe driving; visual acuity of at least 20/40 in one eye and 20/100 in the other eye; adequate hearing with both ears.
5. Experience as a driver.
6. Knowledge of: state motor vehicle regulations and traffic laws; road and traffic signs and signals; driving techniques.
7. Skill in all important driving functions such as turning corners and curves; backing and steering; maneuvering bus in limited quarters, etc.

Much more difficult than knowing what characteristics and abilities a bus driver should have is the determination of those who possess these characteristics and abilities in satisfactory degree. A rigid physical examination before selection and periodic examinations thereafter would appear to be essential. On other matters there will apparently have to be dependence upon the candidate's reputation for character, knowledge, and ability until adequate tests are developed through research. In time, we may expect state education departments to establish a system of certifying those who meet minimum requirements. One important question is whether pupils should be allowed to drive. Some states do not permit this; others, like North Carolina, do. The state superintendent of North Carolina, do. The state superintendent of North Carolina reported, in 1940, that about 75 per cent of pupils were transported in vehicles operated by high school pupils with an "enviable safety record unsurpassed by any transportation organization operating in North Carolina." Since 1940, the percentage of drivers who are high school boys and girls has risen to 85 or 90 per cent. This problem merits further study.

---

[1] National Commission on Safety Education. *Standards and Training Programs for School Bus Drivers*. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1949.

Training programs for bus drivers may do much to increase efficiency. North Carolina requires every person to complete such a program before being appointed as driver. In New York, the State Education Department offers such courses in different sections of the state and has prepared a manual[1] which serves as a sort of textbook.

While the principal of the school has over-all responsibilities for discipline, the bus driver must, obviously, take responsibility while on the road. Since no person can drive safely or efficiently if his attention is distracted by misbehaving children, a system of monitors is likely to be useful. Pattington[2] describes one such system that has worked well. In this school, monitors are used to get pupils into line so that those who get off last are first on and take the back seats. Each pupil has a certain seat so that the driver, who has a seating chart, knows at once when someone is missing. A teacher is put in charge of each bus line and a boy and girl are appointed to head the line. Each teacher also has a seating chart. On the first day, a senior pupil meets each bus as it comes in and before pupils are let off each is checked to make sure he knows his bus number. The parents of small children are requested to attach a slip to each child giving his name, his age, and the location of his home. The number of the bus is written on this slip. Monitors lead the line on the bus, help to preserve order, aid in loading and unloading at homes, and help pupils across the highway under the direction of the driver. Originally, in this school, the monitors were appointed by the principal; later, by the driver; still later, they were selected by the pupils. It was observed that the "bad" boy appointed as monitor was usually too busy to get into mischief. At the end of the year, the drivers in this school give each monitor a prize. Perhaps preferable to a prize would be an assembly recognizing the services of these young leaders.

If the hazards on each route are definitely located on a map, the board and the principal have a constant reminder of improvements that should be sought. It is astonishing to know how much can be accomplished over a few years by being constantly alert. In New York State, for example, town and county road authorities have added hard-surfaced roads, kept them in repair, and initiated snow-removal policies as means of making the school transportation system both efficient and safe. In that state where snow and ice conditions not infrequently make transportation unsafe, the schools commonly announce over the nearest radio station that schools will not be in session. This notice may be broadcast early in the morning or during the previous evening.

---

[1] Stewart, Otto J. *A Manual for the Instruction of School Bus Drivers.* Albany: New York State Education Department, 1949 (mimeographed).

[2] Pattington, M. G. "Bus Loading Made Easy." *Nation's Schools,* Vol. 40, No. 1, July, 1947, p. 47.

Another safety factor is the provision for the protection of pupils at the pickup points. Probably the ideal arrangement is to have the children meet at a home where the mother may keep a watchful eye on the group. Stores, gasoline service stations, and similar places of business may be used where the manager is known to be entirely reliable. Elsewhere, small shelters should be erected if weather conditions are frequently unfavorable.

Measuring the Quality of the Transportation Program. A figure showing the cost of transportation (per pupil transported, per bus-mile, etc.) is largely meaningless unless it is known what service is provided for the money expended. Knowing the quality of this service enables the local administrator to answer other questions more definitely than would otherwise be the case. Such questions include "Is our program satisfactory in terms of accepted standards? If it is not satisfactory, in what particulars should improvement be sought?"

We do not yet have a measuring device of such general acceptance that it may be considered as authoritative. However, one such scale has been developed and used.[1] At present it should be considered only as a first step in the development of an adequate measuring device. This or any other similar device will probably need change from time to time as research and experience enable us to establish standards with greater confidence.[2]

General Records and Reports. The principal of the small school, especially if he is not provided with adequate clerical help, must be careful to avoid such an overemphasis of records and reports that he does not have the time or the energy for the larger leadership aspects of his position. Nevertheless, every school should keep certain records regarding transportation: (1) those required by law; and (2) those necessary for good management.

---

[1] Ruegsegger, Virgil. "Pupil Transportation Score Card for Measuring Effectiveness and Quality of Service of Buses, Routes and Transportation Systems." *Administering Pupil Transportation* (Butterworth and Ruegsegger). Pp. 51–78. This score card is also available from the publishers as a reprint.

[2] A revision of the Ruegsegger score card that will take into account developments since 1941 is now under way at Cornell University.

Through the work of a special committee appointed by the United States Office of Education, there is available a well-considered set of record forms, which the local principal may use or may adapt to his special needs.[1] There is space here for a brief description only of these forms:

Form 1. School bus schedule. Includes, for example (for each bus): each stop; time scheduled for stop; name of each pupil loaded in the morning; miles from home to bus stop; miles pupil rides to school; grade; school attended; etc.

Form 2. School bus driver's report. Includes names of noncooperative pupils; pupils riding bus for first time; pupils no longer riding bus; etc.

Form 3. School bus driver's report (to chief mechanic). Motor, ignition, and other elements in the bus needing attention; route conditions and hazards.

Form 4. Special trip authorization and driver report.

Form 5. School bus accident report. Numerous details regarding each accident.

Form 11. Monthly or 1,000-mile school-bus inspection report. Forty-six items that should be inspected.

Form 12. Annual school-bus inspection report. Seventy-one items needing inspection.

Form 13. Permanent chassis record. Includes many details: date purchased; price; tire size; speedometer reading at beginning of each year; equipment; etc.

Form 14. Permanent body record. Includes: length; width; type of construction; seating capacity; purchase price; maintenance record for each year; equipment; etc.

Form 15. Teacher-principal monthly or annual report on transported pupils. Analysis of number in average daily attendance transported by bus and by public carriers; by contract; number in average daily attendance who receive subsistence in lieu of transportation.

Form 16. Administrative unit report on transportation at public expense. A summary sheet giving an over-all picture of number of pupils transported; the cost of transportation; number of vehicles of different type operated; number of vehicles of different type purchased; etc.

If Forms 15 and 16 were universally used, we would then have data available on both state and Federal levels that would enable us to compare different systems of transportation and to evaluate certain phases of these systems.

Financial Records. The same report of the Office of Education includes forms for analyzing transportation costs:

Form 6. Garage service record. Information for each bus regarding quantity of gas, oil, grease, parts, tires, and labor provided by the garage and their cost.

Form 7. Monthly bus report of chief mechanic. For each bus a summary of the several items of cost given in Form 6.

Form 8. Monthly bus report of supervisor of transportation. Summarizes for all the busses the data given in Form 7; includes also drivers' salaries.

Other forms, not described here, give the data for the entire year as presented in Forms 7 and 8.

---

[1] Featherston, E. Glenn, and Gibbs, Andrew H. *Records and Reports for Pupil Transportation.* Special Series No. 2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1949.

Distribution Ledger for Transportation Costs. The words "expenditures" and "costs" are often used interchangeably.

In transportation accounting it is important that these two concepts be clearly differentiated. Transportation *expenditures* for the year include those monies that are *actually paid out* during that year. *Costs*, on the other hand, are the monies that represent payment for *service rendered* or for *materials consumed* during the year, whether paid for during that year or during some other financial period. For example, if a school bus is purchased at $7,500 and paid for when delivered, that item is an "expenditure" for that year. The "cost" during a particular year, assuming a ten-year life of the bus, is one-tenth of the total, or $750. Bus parts usually have an effective life of more than one year; hence such charges, if of significant amount, should be distributed over the years on some reasonable basis. Gas and oil that is purchased and used in the same year represent "costs"; but any supplies of these items that remain at the end of the school year in which they are paid for represent "expenditures" for the year. Those supplies that remain will be used during the next year and the charges for these represent "costs" for that year. Drivers' salaries, on the other hand, are usually paid for during the year the service is rendered; hence "expenditures" and "costs," in this case, are the same.[1]

If the manager of the transportation system is to make an intelligent judgment as to whether he is getting adequate service for the money paid out, either for the program as a whole or for any particular vehicle, it is the *cost* that is significant. The accompanying "Ledger for Transporta-

DISTRIBUTION LEDGER FOR TRANSPORTATION COSTS

a. Year_____ b. Bus #_____ c. Route (or routes) #_____
d. Mileage at beginning of year_____
e. Mileage at end of year_____
f. Mileage for special trips (from Form 4)_____
g. Mileage for regular trips_____
h. Cost for regular transportation: per-bus-mile_____
per-pupil-per-year-of-bus-capacity_____

			Administration		Operation of Vehicle			Maintenance of Vehicle					
Date	Item	Form No.	Salaries	Other	Drivers Salaries	Gasoline	Chains	Labor	Parts	Oil & Grease	Tires	Anti-Freeze	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

Operation of Garage				Depreciation on			Fixed Charges			Additional Route Costs	
Labor	Supplies	Heat, Light, Water	Other	Vehicles	Garage	Garage Equipment	Insurance	Rent and Storage	Other	Subsidiary Routes	Other
15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26

---

[1] Butterworth and Ruegsegger, *op. cit.*, pp. 106–111.

tion Costs" will enable him to secure this information for each vehicle in his fleet and, by combining the costs, will give him the same information for the entire transportation program. From these figures he can readily compute the cost per bus-mile, the annual cost per pupil of bus capacity (or per pupil transported, if the number carried each day is recorded), or any other unit he considers significant. He may, thus, analyze the evidence as to the effect upon costs of make, size, or age of vehicle; length or condition of the route; the number of stops on the route; and the like.

This form is not imperative, since most of the data are recorded by months from other forms suggested above. In a system having only four or five busses, this ledger is probably not worth the effort required; with larger fleets it will be found useful because it presents the information in organized form. These costs that are due to the nature of the route (*e.g.*, cost of subsidiary routes) rather than to the bus directly are reported under "Additional Route Costs." Some routes will not have such costs.

In determining the costs for each vehicle, certain problems arise in connection with certain items in the budget.

1. *How should costs, such as those for administration, be allocated to the several busses in the fleet?* If all busses are of approximately the same size, the answer is simple: divide the total costs by the number of vehicles. If some busses are much smaller than others, recognition of size may be made by counting those with a capacity of 50 or above as 1, while those with about half that capacity as ½. A station wagon may be assigned a value of ¼. There is probably no real advantage in recognizing smaller differences in size of vehicle.

2. *How should the cost of items that last more than a year be determined?* Strict accounting would require that the probable life of the item be estimated and a proportionate amount be charged to each year. However, such detailed accounting probably serves no useful purpose with small items such as chains, fan belts, and spark plugs. The cost will have little effect upon the total cost of the bus for the year. In larger items such as tires, a radiator, a differential, and especially a bus body, it will probably be desirable to distribute the cost over the estimated remaining life of the vehicle. As the details of a practicable plan for determining costs are perfected, suggestions will doubtless be made so that different schools will be following similar practices.

Column 2 will summarize the item of, say, gasoline for each month. Since this item is taken from Form 7, the number 7 will be recorded in Column 3. The cost of the gasoline will, of course, be recorded in Column 7.

Column 4 includes the salary of the supervisor of transportation and that part of the salary of the school administrator that represents the time given to this function. While this is certain to be an estimate, the accuracy of the estimate will be increased if the administrator will keep a record of the time given to (1) those activities that take most of his time at the beginning or end of the year (*e.g.*, planning routes, purchasing busses, interviewing candidates for the position of driver, etc.), and (2) activities during one or more typical weeks. If a clerk gives a significant part of her time to keeping transportation records, the appropriate percentage of her salary should also be included here. The incidental services of teachers in loading and unloading may be ignored.

Column 5 includes the cost of record forms and the like.

The figures in Column 6 are recorded from Form 8; those in Columns 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14, from Form 7.

Column 15 should include that part of the salary of the head mechanic not charged to labor on individual busses. If custodial service is a significant item, it should also be included. In Columns 15 to 18 and 20 to 24 determine the charges against each bus by the method suggested in paragraph 1 above.

Column 16 includes the cost of record forms used in the garage, sweeping compounds, etc.

Column 17 should estimate, on some reasonable basis, the heat, light, and water charges. If the garage has a separate unit for heating or separate meters for light and water, exact costs are available.

Column 19, depreciation on vehicles, may be determined on the basis of the expected life of the vehicle in terms either of years or of mileage. The probable trade-in value of the vehicle should, of course, be taken into account but in practice this is a very difficult factor to evaluate. A common practice now appears to assume a life of ten years or 100,000 miles. Unfavorable road or weather conditions or methods of servicing may reduce the life of the vehicle or favorable conditions may lengthen it. We need, and in time will doubtless have, factual data for varying conditions that will enable us to make depreciation estimates much more accurately. In Column 20, depreciation is commonly on the basis of twenty to twenty-five years; in Column 21, on the basis of ten years, even though there is a considerable difference in the effective life of different kinds of equipment.

If insurance, Column 22, is on a fleet basis, the cost should be allocated among the various vehicles. Column 23 will be for vehicles not stored in a school-owned garage; the cost of storage in the school garage will be included in Column 20.

Columns 25 and 26 give costs, not of the bus, but of the route or routes over which the bus operates. Column 26 would include such items as any payment made to a mother for supervising children who may use her home as a waiting station; cost, if any, of a vehicle to substitute for one that has broken down on the route; depreciation cost (probably on a five-year basis) of a shelter erected at a pickup point; etc.

The keeping of these financial records might well be referred to the school's staff in commercial subjects because of its value in giving practical experience to pupils in one phase of cost accounting.

As is indicated at various places in the description of this ledger, there are a number of items on which agreement should be made by some authoritative body if costs are to be determined on even a fairly uniform basis.

Factors Affecting the Cost of Transportation. In 1947–1948, the average cost per pupil transported (capital expenditures not included) in the

United States was $30.11. However, there were great variations among the states: Alabama, $17.80; Kentucky, $17.88; North Carolina, $18.36; California, $27.78; Massachusetts, $33.14; Missouri, $33.71; Illinois, $64.89; Kansas, $75.22; and Montana, $72.99.[1] These differences are explained in part by differences in the items included in the expenditures for this purpose and in the quality of the transportation program provided. Probably they are largely due, however, to differences in the conditions under which the transportation program operates.

In the last twenty years, several studies have indicated that transportation costs are affected by a number of factors, the more important being the following:[2]

1. Number transported. In general, as the percentage of pupils transported increases, the cost per pupil tends to decline.
2. Seating capacity of bus. In general, the larger the vehicle, within practical limits, the less the cost per pupil. This is largely because the driver of a large bus costs little more than for a small one. One 50-passenger vehicle can certainly be operated more cheaply than two 25-passenger vehicles.
3. The length of the route. The unit cost of a 50-passenger vehicle on a 30-mile route will not be twice that on a 15-mile route. This is because driver costs are not likely to be twice as great (unless payment is made on a mileage basis); depreciation if computed on a yearly basis will be little, if any, different on the two routes; storage will be no different; and insurance is likely to be little, if any, different.
4. Ownership of the vehicle. As previously indicated, several studies have shown district ownership to be less expensive; but, when the same items of cost are included, the difference between the two probably is less than is generally believed.
5. Cost of bus (new). Since depreciation amounts to approximately a third of the cost of transportation, it becomes important to choose that make and type of vehicle that will give satisfactory service in a given situation at the least cost per bus-mile. A disinterested study of this program will probably lead to significant economies.

When Are Transportation Costs Reasonable? This is an important but troublesome question for an administrator to answer, whether he is facing the problem of estimating the cost of a transportation program to be established or of checking the costs of one actually in operation.

1. To multiply the actual or estimated number of pupil miles in his system by the average cost in his state, as shown by the data from Blose and Featherston above, may give the administrator a rough figure, but it cannot be more than that. There are many factors operating within the several local districts of a state that make for different and defensible costs per pupil transported.

2. He may and should study the costs in his district in the light of conditions that prevail therein. He may determine whether the salaries paid

---

[1] Blose, David T., and Featherston, E. Glenn. *Statistics of Pupil Transportation, 1947–48.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency).

[2] Butterworth and Ruegsegger, *op. cit.*, pp. 115–131.

drivers are reasonable in terms of compensation for comparable service in that community and whether each driver is compensated on the basis of his ability and experience. He may compare costs for busses of varying age and of different make and may form a judgment as to which is most economical. He may compute the cost per bus or per pupil (using the cost ledger suggested above) per mile, or per pupil per year, or both, and seek such reorganization of routes as will reduce costs. Any reasonable effort of this type is almost certain to yield satisfactory returns in the way of economy. The weakness in this method, when used alone, is that there is lacking a picture of transportation conditions and costs in similar communities with which to make comparison.

3. As a means of checking his analysis of local conditions, the administrator may use "approved" or "reasonable" or "average" costs as established in his state. For example, such costs may be established for drivers in terms of a wage per hour, day, or year; for gas and oil in terms of mileage or of capacity of vehicle; for depreciation at a specified percentage each year; or for other items. Such data must, if they are to be useful, be based upon experience in that state and should be collected every few years in order that changing conditions may be taken into account. The data may be uniform for all situations or may be classified according to certain significant categories. Thus, wages may be divided into those prevailing in rural and in suburban areas, or into groups representing the time required: *e.g.*, one, two, three, four, and five hours of service each day. Truck-driver rates in the community or area are useful indications of fair rates of compensation.

Even this method does not give the administrator a reliable answer as to what are reasonable costs for his district, but it does give him a base from which to start any further analysis he wishes to make.

4. A study of factors affecting the cost of transportation in any state is likely to yield useful results. Several such studies[1] have been made with the result that certain factors have been identified as having significance in particular states: density of population, variously defined (Alabama, Florida, Oklahoma); a variety of factors (Ohio, New York, North Carolina); distance and bus capacity, supplemented by "standard" costs for wages, operation, depreciation, and the like (New York, California, Arkansas). In some cases the factors shown to be significant have been incorporated into a formula for allocating state aid for transportation.

Seeking Economies in Transportation. From the preceding pages may be drawn some suggestions as to factors that should be scrutinized by the administrator as he seeks to get an effective program at a reasonable cost.

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 115–131. For a very recent study, see Johns, R. L. "Determining Pupil Transportation Cost." *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 43, February, 1949, p. 48.

1. Reducing the cost per pupil by increasing the capacity of the vehicle. This may be done through
   - *a.* Using on a route (so far as possible) a vehicle that will be filled to capacity, or nearly so.
   - *b.* Replacing two small busses with one larger one of acceptable capacity.
   - *c.* Replacing a bus with one permitting a lower investment per pupil (*if* this can be done without sacrificing standards).
2. Arranging for the vehicle to cover the largest possible mileage without keeping pupils on the road for an unreasonable time. This may be done through
   - *a.* Requiring a bus to make more than one trip. This has been found possible in county systems (*e.g.* Shelby County, Tennessee[1]) where the opening hour of different schools is staggered.
   - *b.* Eliminating unnecessary mileage from the bus routes by asking pupils to walk a reasonable distance.
   - *c.* Routing a bus so that it may serve more than one building (feasible where the county has supervision of the transportation program).
3. Scrutinizing policies of management. Costs may frequently be reduced by:
   - *a.* Replacing old busses with new ones where repair and other costs become heavy.
   - *b.* Changing to district ownership if a study of local conditions shows that this is likely to be less expensive.
   - *c.* Selecting drivers who have profitable employment during the remainder of the day.
   - *d.* Using pupils as drivers if thoroughly competent ones can be found (but safety rather than economy should be the chief criterion).
   - *e.* Purchasing busses through the state. While North Carolina believes that this policy is much more economical, other states disagree.

Local vs. Intermediate District Control. Where the county (or similar area) is the local school district, the transportation program will usually be administered by that unit. In other states, where the county is an intermediate district, there would appear to be advantages in delegating this responsibility to the larger unit. The following advantages may be secured under such a plan: (1) supplies and equipment may commonly be purchased more economically because of the larger quantity involved; (2) routes may be laid out so as to reduce the overlapping of travel frequently found in small-district control; (3) one vehicle may be used on two or more short routes, or very short routes may be incorporated into larger ones without keeping pupils on the road an unreasonable time; (4) a better and probably a more economical system of servicing may be established; (5) with the larger number of vehicles, greater flexibility becomes possible in allocating vehicles to routes so that full capacity or close to it may be maintained; (6) the county can probably resist more effectively than the local district demands for the transportation of pupils who could walk to school without danger or difficulty; (7) it is likely that if a transportation supervisor were appointed for such a larger area there would be desirable effects on safety, efficiency, and costs.

---

[1] "We are using a staggered opening and closing program in our schools. We have had no complaints from parents. This plan works extremely well in thickly populated areas, *within* three to six miles radius of schools. . . . All of our buses make two trips, about half of them make three trips and there are six buses at one school which make four trips each morning and each afternoon. . . . I would estimate our savings overall at about 30%." (Geo. H. Barnes, Financial Secretary.)

Such a system of larger-district control should be so organized that the full cooperation of local principals will be assured in making the program operate smoothly.

Comprehensive data as to the effect of large-area control on costs are not now available. However, a study made in New York indicated that, in three proposed intermediate districts, larger-unit control could save 97,675 miles of travel with a dollar saving of $26,860, or 22.8%, of the total cost.[1] Data from the report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization suggests that larger districts result in lower per-pupil costs for transportation.[2]

Emerging Transportation Functions. The basic purpose of a transportation system is to get pupils from their homes to the school and back again. However, new uses of school vehicles are being recognized. For example, in a study[3] made in 1941, in 78 central schools of New York that operated 483 district-owned busses and 39 contract vehicles, these vehicles were used on 3,321 trips for other than their primary purpose. About 42 per cent of these trips were field trips (to agricultural projects; to give supplementary experiences in home economics, science, and social studies; to attend music festivals, dances, and picnics, etc.) About 46 per cent were athletic trips (taking participants and spectators to games); about 1.0 per cent were out-of-state trips (*e.g.*, taking the senior class to Washington); about 10 per cent were evening trips to school; about 1 per cent were for other purposes.

One may guess that more and more there will be demand on the part of citizens to use the busses for supplementary educational puposes. It would seem to be defensible policy to use school busses to extend the instructional program of school children by inspecting agricultural projects, seeing how a cooperative creamery is operated, studying the governmental machinery of the community or county by visiting the mayor's office or the county courthouse, seeing how a modern business office is organized, taking an athletic team to play a neighboring school or a glee club to participate in a regional music festival. One can be less certain of the defensibility of a policy of taking the senior class to Washington or taking boy scouts to a jamboree. Still less certain is a policy of taking "rooters" to contests, or members of the school's drama club on a picnic, or parents to a PTA meeting or a school fair. As boards of education face decision on such matters, a defensible policy may emerge, but until we have had more experience and until guiding principles begin to emerge, no two boards are likely to make exactly the same decision.

---

[1] Butterworth, Julian E. "What Effect Has the Size of District on Pupil Transportation?" *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 44, No. 2, pp. 42–44.

[2] Dawson, Howard A., Reeves, Floyd W., *et al. Your School District.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, pp. 98–100, 286.

[3] Doolan, Edward A. *A Study of Non-routine Uses of School Busses in New York State Central Rural Schools.* Master's Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1941.

States have been and should be fairly conservative about extending the scope of the transportation program. Thus, North Carolina limits the use of busses to the transportation of children to and from school for the regularly organized school day; to necessary field trips while pursuing courses in vocational agriculture, home economics, trade, and industrial vocational subjects; and to state-planned group educational or health activities. New York, in effect, places the responsibility for supplementary services upon the school district, because the state aid is determined by a formula that gives a measure of reasonable cost for transporting pupils from their homes to the school and return.

At this stage in our development of concepts as to purposes for which school busses may be used, New York's policy is probably sound. If the responsibility for deciding upon these supplementary uses is left with the local board, useful community discussion of the matter may result. People are much less likely to demand transportation service for various supplementary purposes when they realize that they, as local tax payers, are bearing the cost.

State Aid for Transportation. Most of the states have come to recognize that some financial assistance to localities is essential if an adequate transportation system is to be developed. In 6 states, no specific appropriation, allocation, or adjustment for transportation is made, but part of a general-purpose fund may be used. In 28 states, there are one or more general-purpose funds for schools, a part of which may be used for this purpose. In 20 states, transportation is provided for as a part of the state's foundation program for education; in 2 states, there is aid for the purpose of equalizing the burden for transportation; in 22 states there are specific grants for this purpose.

In 8 states, density of transportation population is the major basis for determining the community's need for this service; in 11 states, a certain percentage of expenditure is the basis; while in 17 states, the basis is a certain percentage of allowable cost.[1]

---

[1] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: the Council of State Governments, 1949, pp. 220–221. See also Covert, Timon. *State Plans for Financing Pupil Transportation.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1946.

While much more study is needed on this subject, the following principles may well guide in the future development of state assistance: (1) transportation should be recognized as an essential part of a community's educational program, and provision should be made for financing it on an adequate basis; (2) equalization of the transportation burden is as defensible as is equalization of the rest of the educational programs; (3) specific means for measuring the extent of the community's needs for transportation should be sought, with a recognition that the states are likely to differ as to the factors that are most significant.

Need for Research. Because transportation is a relatively new activity, research on its various problems is needed even more than in some other phases of a school system. If, as seems not unlikely, these researches should lead to a 10 per cent savings in cost or in the efficiency of the service during the next ten years, such an investment would be exceedingly profitable.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. How is transportation financed in your state? How much, if any, does the state contribute? On what basis or bases does the state make its allocation? What changes might be desirable?

2. Set up a transportation record system for your school that you consider to be practicable.

3. In your school are vehicles used for purposes other than getting pupils to and from school? If so, for what specific purposes are they used? What is the approximate cost of these special uses? Outline a policy on this matter that you are willing to defend.

4. If your school has a district-owned system but no school garage, draw plans for one that will meet your needs. What equipment should be provided? What will be the probable cost?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Belknap, Burton. *The School Bus.* Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1950.

Butterworth, Julian E., and Ruegsegger, Virgil. *Administering Pupil Transportation.* Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1941.

Covert, Timon. *State Plans for Financing Pupil Transportation.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1946.

Culp, D. P. *An Administrator's Handbook of School Transportation.* Bulletin No. 4. Montgomery, Ala.: State Department of Education, 1950.

Featherston, E. Glenn. *School Bus Maintenance.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1948.

———. *School Bus Drivers.* Pamphlet No. 100. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1946.

——— and Gibbs, Andrew H. *Records and Reports for Pupil Transportation.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), 1949.

Meadows, Austin R. *Safety and Economy in School Bus Transportation.* Montgomery, Ala., 1940. (Out of print, but copies will be found in many libraries.)

National Commission on Safety Education. *Standards and Training Programs for School Bus Drivers.* Washington, D.C.: National Educational Association, 1949.

———. *Minimum Standards for School Buses.* Washington, D.C.: National Educational Association, 1949.

Noble, M. C. S., Jr. *Pupil Transportation in the United States.* Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1940.

Reeder, Ward G. *The Administration of Pupil Transportation.* Columbus, Ohio: The Educator's Press, 1939.

CHAPTER 23

THE SCHOOL PLANT IN THE RURAL COMMUNITY

Most of our American states appear to be headed toward one of two types of rural district organization. The first type is that which we have described in previous chapters as a community type of district. In this district a 12-grade school is ordinarily maintained, although in many districts there will also be one-teacher or other small schools. In this type of organization the provision of the more highly specialized services is made through an intermediate district roughly comparable in size to the typical county. The second type of organization is the county unit, which includes under one board and one superintendent all the schools of the county with the possible exception of some of the larger villages or cities.

These two organizations call for the same type of school-building planning. In the first type, the district boundaries are definitely delimited so that the district may make its plans in accordance with a known clientele, subject to such changes as may come about in the district. In the second type, formal local districts do not exist, but attendance areas have somewhat the same effect upon the planning of the school building. Here a well-planned county unit will designate the location of the high schools needed to serve the school population, together with such one-teacher or other small schools as may be needed. The areas served by these schools may be changed from time to time by the county board of education as shifting population or other factors make this desirable. However, the need for planning carefully the housing of pupils in the attendance area is obviously just as important as it is in a comparable territory organized as an independent school district.

The Purpose of This Chapter. In this chapter, it will not be possible to deal with the many details in the planning of a school building. It is, however, important that those responsible for developing the educational program in rural areas be aware of the major problems in this field. This chapter will, therefore, undertake to point out the major steps in planning a building needed to house the educational program; indicate some of the more important procedures involved in this planning; suggest certain new ideas that are coming into school-building planning; and call attention to those school-building problems that are especially important in the rural areas.

Steps in Planning a New Building. Adequate planning for the housing of a modern educational program involves a number of essential steps.

Getting Community Discussion. A school-building program should not be entered upon until the community has had opportunity to inform itself about a number of important problems. New concepts as to what the educational program should include, new types of school-building design, new materials of construction, and new methods of heating, lighting, and equipping the building call for careful consideration. Since a school building is likely to be used for at least fifty years, the board of education and the superintendent should not make decisions without careful study nor should they attempt to make all the decisions alone. Bringing thoughtful members of the community into the discussions not only is likely to increase the possibility that fewer errors in planning will be made, but will certainly tend to distribute the responsibility for decisions. Such discussion will have the further advantage of ensuring support for the new building when proposals for financing it are made.

In choosing a committee of citizens to act in an advisory capacity, the board of education will naturally look to some of its leading citizens. They will doubtless seek representatives from influential organizations within the community, such as the home bureau, the farm bureau, the chamber of commerce, the PTA, and the luncheon clubs. Women certainly should not be forgotten. They are often more forward-looking on matters of education than are the men. In some cases one or more influential conservatives might well be added.

First of all, such an advisory committee should raise the question as to what kind of program is desired in this particular community. Does the committee foresee the development of an activity program? If so, this will call for modifications, certainly in equipment, probably also in type, size, and lighting of the classrooms. Should the school teach agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts? Does it plan to have a glee club, an orchestra, or a band? Does it wish to give individual instruction in music? Does it contemplate making the school a community center? The answer to such questions will have a significant influence in determining the size of the school building, its general design, and the special provisions made for instructional purposes. Even before final decision is made as to the exact nature of the program to be offered, the members of the committee will begin to think about the kind of building needed. Do they prefer a school building of two stories, or would they like one of a single story, a type which is now receiving favorable consideration in many communities?

Would they like the traditional heating system, or would they prefer new developments such as radiant heating?

The foregoing paragraph gives a few examples of the numerous problems that have to be recognized and solved by the community. How should the board, superintendent, and the advisory committee proceed? First of all, they should read widely as to developments characteristic of modern school buildings. They should study plans of school buildings that have been erected in recent years. They should visit school buildings in other communities in order that they may appraise more accurately the several types of facilities that may be developed.

Communities may find it helpful to use a form of analysis such as that recently developed in New York.[1] This guide makes general suggestions regarding a school-building program about which the community should be informed. It then raises the following questions: what is our community like; what kind of education do we need; what kind of buildings will meet our educational needs; and how do we get these buildings? In connection with each of these questions, there is provision for recording a variety of data significant in making decision. With such a guide, the community is likely to pursue its investigations in a more orderly fashion than would likely be the case otherwise.

Estimating the Future Enrollment. Obviously, a school cannot be adequately planned until the approximate number of pupils to be housed is known. Not only is it necessary to know the present enrollment but every effort should be made to predict as accurately as possible the probable enrollment one or two decades hence.

The first step is to secure data regarding both census and average daily attendance for the last ten to twenty years. These data may well be placed on a graph for easy interpretation by the average citizen. Such data will indicate whether the enrollment is decreasing or increasing and will thus suggest the importance of trying to see what factors in the community are likely to influence the enrollment of the future.

This problem has assumed particular seriousness since about 1945 because of the marked increase in the birth rate. Hamon[2] gives us an indication of the actual and estimated percentage of school children from 1930 to 1960, based on the 1930 enrollment as 100. The enrollment dropped in 1934 to 92. It increased slowly to 98 in 1949. His estimates then indicate a probable percentage of 123 in 1955 and 130 in 1960. A community cannot, however, use these data without careful scrutiny. One community may actually have a smaller population in 1960 than it did in 1950. Another may have a much larger number. Because of the increased birth rate beginning in 1945, there will be in most communities an increased enrollment beginning about five years after birth (where kindergarten is offered), or six years (where no kindergarten is offered), through the period that these children remain in school. It is important, therefore, that these trends in birth rates be carefully studied. Hedlund[1] has given a fairly simple method for taking the birth rate in each community where these data are available and projecting these births over the years, thus making possible a reasonably accurate estimate of future enrollment. To make these estimates it is necessary to secure the birth rate for each of the years from 1940 through the year in which the study is made. Usually these data are available through the state department of vital statistics or the office of the county clerk.

---

[1] New York State Education Department. *Room to Learn; A Guide for Community Participation in Planning for School Building Needs.* Albany, 1949.

[2] Hamon, Ray L. "The Race between School Children and School Houses." *School Life*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 8, 9.

However, the birth rate is only one factor in determining the probable number of pupils in any future year. For example, what is likely to be the increased holding power of the school? In general, our American secondary schools are holding a larger and larger proportion of their school children beyond the compulsory school age. What facilities in the new school program are likely to hold young people in school for a longer time, and as a result, what is likely to be the increased enrollment? Has there been, recently, an increase in the age at which pupils may legally drop out of school? Estimates, only, can be made as to increased holding power, but estimates are better than pure guesses. Is there any territory that may be added to the district, and if so, how many children are likely to be involved? Is it possible that certain territory now in the district will be transferred to another district? Is there any change in the agriculture of the region that may affect the total population and, therefore, the number of children attending school? For example, has an irrigation ditch been opened up, or has some low-class land where people now live been taken out of cultivation for reforestation purposes? Is a new industry likely to develop, or is an existing one likely to move away? All such factors need careful evaluation. The result will not be completely accurate, but it will be more accurate than if no such analysis is made.

Planning the Curriculum. The building is designed to house whatever curriculum is offered. What this curriculum will be will depend upon such factors as the number of children enrolled, the desire of the community to have a broad program, and the ability of the community to finance the program.

In general, it seems reasonable to assume that the following offerings will be available in the typical rural community: a college-preparatory curriculum; an agricultural curriculum; a home-economics curriculum; a business curriculum; such special subjects as music, art, and industrial arts; and such special services as guidance, health, and a special class for backward children. Other offerings such as are outlined in Chapter 7 are important, but some of these will usually be provided through an intermediate district (Chapter 20). Whatever the program may be, it is important to decide what particular kind of offerings will be made.

---

[1] Hedlund, Paul A. "How to Estimate Future Public School Enrollments." *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 120, No. 2, pp. 27, 28, 94.

Determining the Number and Kinds of Rooms Needed. The following is one method that may be used in making the estimate as to the specific room facilities that should be provided.

1. Divide the enrollment in the elementary school by the size of class (usually about 25 to 30) that the district considers desirable. If the policy is to hold half-day instead of full-day sessions for the kindergarten, one room may serve two groups. The enrollment in each of the several grades will usually not be the same because of differences in the size of the entering class in different years, together with nonpromotions, accelerations, in-migration, and out-migration. It may, therefore, be desirable to allow one or more classrooms more than this method suggested above gives.

2. The problem in the high school is more complex because of the various curriculums and subjects of instruction offered. W. K. Wilson of the New York State Education Department has developed a formula for determining the number of interchangeable rooms (those that may be used for any of the subjects not requiring special facilities) needed. In a small high school it is difficult to justify the setting aside of one or more rooms for the exclusive use of classes in English or in social studies or in foreign language. Wilson's formula for determining the number of interchangeable rooms is

$$\frac{(\text{Enrollment}/12) + 15}{\text{Number of periods in the school day}}$$

While the formula was developed for New York conditions, Wilson has used it in other states and finds that it applies exceedingly well. He does suggest, however, that the formula be examined to see if certain local conditions, such as a very meager or an unusually extensive offering of special subjects, may require a modification of it.

Since high school classes will vary in size because of the various electives that may be chosen by pupils, Wilson believes three sizes of classrooms should be provided: small (20 pupils); medium (30 pupils); large (40 pupils). He suggests that if there are 10 rooms of this type, three may be small, four may be medium, and three may be large.[1] Large classes are likely to be those in grades 7 to 10; small classes, those in the upper grades. Likewise, required subjects, such as English and social studies, will almost certainly be larger than elective subjects, such as advanced classes in foreign language and mathematics. Usually a school will desire to have very few classes with an enrollment over 30. Each school should determine the distribution of room size in accordance with its policy regarding class size.

3. For the special rooms, Wilson makes the suggestions given in Table 49.

---

[1] Wilson, William K. *The Development and Use of Planning Techniques for Small High Schools in New York.* Albany: New York State Education Department (mimeographed).

TABLE 49. WILSON'S SUGGESTIONS FOR SPECIAL ROOMS IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS[a]

Subject	Enrollment in grades 9–12	Teacher stations	Pupil capacities of teacher stations
Science	50– 88	1	Comb. room 30
	89–200	1	Comb. room 35–40
	201–400	2	Adv. sci. 24–30 Elem. sci. 35–40
Homemaking	50–145	1	16
	146–400	1	24
Vocational shop	50–145	1	16
	146–400	1	24
Vocational agriculture	50–145	2	Shop 16 Shop rec. 20
	146–400	2	Shop 24 Shop rec. 24
Typing	50–128	1	15
	129–184	1	20
	185–296	1	24
	297–400	1	28
Drawing or art	50–200	None	
	201–400	1	28
Music and dramatics	50–400		Combination with auditorium or cafeteria

[a] Wilson, William K. *The Development and Use of Planning Techniques for Small High Schools in New York.* Albany: New York State Education Department, p. 16*A* (mimeographed).

Selecting an Architect. The day when a satisfactory school building could be planned and constructed by a local contractor alone is gone. A competent architect should be employed, preferably one who is a member of the American Institute of Architects. He should have had experience with school buildings (or give promise of being competent in this specialized field of architecture), should be willing to assist the community in understanding the facilities that a modern school should provide, and should be willing to work wholeheartedly in giving the community what it thinks it wants after careful consideration.[1]

The function of the architect is to guide the community in deciding what is good or not good, what is practicable and not practicable, and what is perhaps too costly for the community. It is his business to do the planning and designing, to prepare the technical documents resulting in working specifications, and to supervise the construction of the building.

---

[1] See White, Warren T., *et al. American School Buildings.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1949, p. 130.

Securing the Advice of the State Education Department. While planning for a school building should originate with the community in order that it may be adapted to the educational needs and the financial resources of the community, it is sound policy to have the plans checked by an authoritative individual or group in the state education department.

At the present time the service rendered by state education departments varies among the several states. Twenty either have no such building specialists, or have less than one full-time person. Other states have several; for example, New York State has six; Alabama, four; Virginia, four. Twenty-four of the states provide for the preparation of plans for small school buildings. Six prepare plans for new school buildings.[1] A state education department should have the authority to give advice regarding plans and, in the case of certain important aspects of the building, as, for example, protection against fire hazards or minimum size of classroom, should have the authority to enforce its suggestions. It is doubtful whether a state department should have the authority to prepare plans for a community. Over the years such a policy is likely to result in ignoring special community needs or in establishing a uniformity of design that does not encourage new ideas in school buildings. In time, it is likely that every state will offer some type of school-building service. There is, perhaps, a real danger that as time goes on the state will take over more and more responsibility and will, in effect, try to determine for each and every community exactly what it needs in the way of a school building. This need not happen if everyone is alert to the importance of finding new ways of meeting school-building needs.

Some New Conceptions in School Buildings. Probably in no phase are there more new ideas than in this field of school-building planning and construction. It is important, therefore, that those responsible for the school building be alert to new ideas, whether these ideas relate to general design, to materials of construction, to provision for housing of special offerings, or to methods of heating, ventilation, and lighting. Those responsible for a building program in a community should, therefore, give themselves a general education in this field before they proceed too far. A careful reading of the volume by Perkins and Cocking[2] will challenge many of the conceptions that have been held heretofore. This volume is replete with new ideas of all kinds. The responsible official will wish also to study the latest guide published by the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction.[1] He will find many useful suggestions in the 1949 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators devoted to school buildings.[2] He will find many suggestions in a series of bulletins published by the New York State Education Department dealing with the elementary classroom, agricultural and industrial-arts shops, outdoor physical-education facilities, indoor physical-education facilities, the audiovisual program, the school lunchroom, the library, the auditorium, and other units of the building. Several of these bulletins are designed especially for the new type of rural school in New York, namely, the central school. No one planning a building for a rural community should fail to study carefully Cyr and Linn's volume.[3] In addition, the *School Executive*, the *Nation's Schools*, and the *American School Board Journal* publish each month one or more designs of new school buildings. The *American School and University*,[4] an annual publication, is devoted entirely to school-building problems. One who studies the material in these publications will become informed as to most new ideas in school buildings.

---

[1] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 219.

[2] Perkins, Laurence B., and Cocking, Walter D. *Schools.* New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1949.

The Elementary Classroom. A traditional type of classroom has become rather well standardized in our thinking. It is usually 22 or 24 feet wide, 28 or 30 feet long, and 10 or 11 feet high. It provides approximately 15 square feet of floor space for each pupil. It has fixed desks, and because of that, lighting from the left only is considered to be essential.

These standards are being challenged. A new type of classroom is being constructed. The basis for this new type classroom is a different kind of educational program. The formal individual recitation receives less emphasis. Much attention is given to formal group work (such as singing, discussing the history of the community); to informal groups work (such as preparing a project on an Eskimo village); and to informal individual work (such as making a scrapbook or weaving a mat for Mother). To make such an activity program possible, it is important first of all that fixed seats be eliminated in favor of combined desk-chair units or small individual tables and chairs which may readily be moved to form small or large groups as desired. Included in the primary grades should be such facilities as:

> . . . "a work center with benches, work units and tools; a library corner with chairs, table, and bookcases; a science center with aquarium, terrarium, and exhibit and

---

[1] Hamon, Ray L., *et al. Guide for Planning School Plants.* Nashville, Tenn.: National Commission on Schoolhouse Construction (W. D. McClurkin, Secretary, Peabody College for Teachers), 1949.

[2] White, *op. cit.*

[3] Cyr, Frank W., Linn, Henry H., *et al. Planning Rural Community School Buildings.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

[4] Published by American School Publishing Corporation, New York.

> demonstration space; an art center with easels, clay table, and finger-painting table; a news center, with bulletin board where events of interest to the pupils are recorded daily; the teachers' corner, with her desk, filing cabinet, and closet; a drinking fountain; and access to the outdoor play area.[1]

All these require more space, and 30 square feet per pupil is now considered not too much.

Provision for natural lighting that is better distributed throughout the classroom is secured through having more window space and through lighting from more than one side. The latter may include clerestory windows high on the wall opposite the banked windows (effective only where the building is of one story) or even banked windows on a second side where the room is a corner one. Undesirable glare may be reduced or controlled by means of draw curtains made of material that will cut down the intensity of the light. Some architects favor the use of clear glass that will permit an unobstructed view of the out-of-doors. Others favor a strip of clear glass about 30 inches wide at a height suitable for children, with directional glass blocks from the top of the clear glass strip to the ceiling. Important psychological as well as physical factors are involved. No confident answer can now be given as to which of these types will best provide well-diffused natural lighting in desirable quantity. Experimentation, both practical and laboratory, is greatly needed.

The Library. In the rural community the library is of especial importance. Even if there is an independent community library, the school library can often be an important supplement to it. If there is no community library, then the school may find it advisable either to lend books to adults in the community or to make the school library in effect a community library also.

A school library should be of such size that approximately 10 to 15 per cent of the secondary school enrollment may be seated at one time. Twenty-five square feet per pupil provides a satisfactory floor area.

Tables of varying heights that will seat not more than six readers are needed. In the secondary school, shelves should be approximately 7 feet in height, the bottom shelf being 4 to 8 inches from the floor. The bottom shelf should be slanted so that titles of books can be easily read. Other equipment should include a circulation desk, card catalogues, bulletin boards, and magazine and newspaper racks. In addition to the general reading room, it is desirable to have one or more conference rooms for the use of small groups. These should be just off the main reading room, and if a glass partition (of either clear or glazed glass) is provided, the librarian can have general supervision of these conference rooms. There must, of course, be a work and storage room for the use of the library. A librarian's room is desirable.

---

[1] Hamon, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 42.

If the school library is also a community library, a separate room for adults may be desirable. This room should naturally adjoin the main reading room and may be separated from it by glazed glass partitions. When used for community purposes, the library should have an outside entrance and it should be possible to close off adjacent corridors or stairs when school is not in session.

The Auditorium. The school auditorium in the rural community has many uses. It serves as an assembly room for pupils, as a place in which dramatic programs may be practiced and presented, and as a place where the orchestra, band, or glee club may practice. Since most rural communities are lacking an adequate place for the holding of general community affairs such as lectures, forums, concerts, and moving pictures, careful study should always be made of needs of this type.

The auditorium should be on the first floor, and separated from adjacent parts of the building. It should, however, contain adequate toilet facilities, a drinking fountain, a public telephone, and a checkroom if a classroom is not available for this purpose. A lobby not only serves as a means of controlling drafts and outside noises, but provides a congregating place for persons before and after a program. It is also useful for aesthetic purposes.

An important problem is one of size. It should, of course, be adequate to house whatever programs are likely to be offered. For school purposes only, the standard suggested by New York State is that the number of seats should not be less than the maximum expected enrollment in kindergarten through the sixth grade, or from the seventh through the twelfth grades, whichever is larger. The size resulting from the application of this standard may, however, need to be increased if demands in the way of a large auditorium for general community purposes justify.

The Agricultural Suite. Although new responsibilities, such as prevocational agriculture, general shop, and instructional service to young farmers are coming to be accepted as parts of the program in agriculture, this brief discussion will give attention only to facilities required for a one-teacher department having, primarily, a vocational objective.

The classroom should be large enough to permit conference-type seating arrangement (ideally for 15 to 20 pupils), using tables in a U, square, or circular pattern (25 to 35 square feet per pupil); should be located on the ground level to permit easy access to adults; should adjoin the shop in order to facilitate supervision of activities in both rooms simultaneously; and should have independent control of heating to permit the heating of the classroom without heating the rest of the building.

The shop should be large enough to permit work stations for pupils arranged in areas of interest (many of the new school plants constructed since the war are allowing approximately 100 square feet per pupil); should have a service road and a large double door, approximately 14 feet wide, to permit the entry of large farm machinery and the exit of portable farm buildings; should have adequate ventilation (particularly exhaust systems for the forge, electric welder, and gas engines); should have concrete floors, designed for and equipped with water drains; should have a glass area equal to about 20 per cent of the floor area; should have convenient electrical power outlets for both 110- and 220-volt sources along the walls and from the ceiling; should have a master control panel conveniently located for all electrical power; should have plumbing that provides for hot and cold water at sinks, inside and outside hose faucets, and floor drains; should have toilet facilities when it is inconvenient to use those available in the main building; and should have independent control of heating to permit the heating of the shop without heating any other part of the building.

The rapid mechanization of farming, reflected in the increasing use of larger and more complicated machines, has made necessary an increasing degree of competence on the part of the farmer in the operation and care of machines and, in some cases, in their repair. Shop space in which the machines can be overhauled and serviced as a part of the instructional program, and equipment for making the less complicated repairs, are now looked upon as essential for every department of vocational agriculture.

To provide the amount of space required for teaching vocational agriculture, many new buildings are being constructed separate from or adjoining the main building to reduce costs, to achieve accessibility, to isolate noises, dirt, and fumes, and to provide for ease of expansion. This trend is accompanied by such disadvantages as disciplinary problems involved when pupils change classes, inaccessibility for routine supervision, a tendency to segregate the agricultural program from the total curriculum, and, in some cases, greater expense for heating and for providing custodial services. Despite these disadvantages many school administrators and teachers look with favor on this new development. Many of the new buildings for vocational agriculture include such special features as teachers' offices, storage rooms, workrooms, washrooms, boiler rooms, and shared areas for heavy equipment.[1]

The Homemaking Center. The size of the homemaking center and the type and amount of equipment necessary depend upon the scope of the homemaking curriculum, the size of classes, the type of classroom organization, and the uses that are to be made of the center. Most rural schools not only offer a general homemaking curriculum for school children, but also either have or doubtless will have in the near future an adult family-life-education program to which the homemaking program may make a significant contribution. Therefore, provision should be made in the homemaking center for activities in the areas of food and nutrition, textiles and clothing, home furnishing and home care, child care, home nursing, and home management for both children and adults. These activities would necessitate laboratory work as well as discussions, and consequently provision for both. A larger space and a greater amount of equipment are essential in a situation where it is believed that all pupils should carry on the same activity simultaneously than in one in which the pupils are engaged in several different types of activities, one group of them doing one thing, other groups doing others. Classroom organization which allows for a rotation of activities is an economical basis upon which to plan a homemaking center and its equipment.

---

[1] This section has been prepared with the assistance of William R. Kunsela, Assistant Professor of Rural Education, Cornell University.

The center may be located within the school building, or it may be in a house or cottage nearby. Of the two possibilities, the cottage more nearly approximates conditions in the home and might be more available for use by community organizations. However, it could encourage an undesirable isolation of the homemaking department from other school activities; it raises the problem of pupils moving from one building to another during inclement weather; it increases the time that is necessary to pass from one class to another. It is possible to plan an adequate center within the building which provides for the advantages of the cottage and eliminates its disadvantages.

The homemaking center should be homelike, attractively furnished, good in color and line. The furnishings and equipment should be sufficiently high above the standards in the community to present a challenge and a goal, but not so high as to be unattainable for homemakers in their own homes. It is desirable to have as much movable furniture and equipment as possible in order that the center may be arranged to suit specific purposes.

The center should serve as many educational purposes as possible. At the minimum, it should provide for all the activities to be carried on in the department for both children and adults, including both laboratory work and discussion. At the maximum, it could well provide for general social activities of pupils and teachers and could serve as a place where such community organizations as the home bureau, the girl scouts, and the homemaking advisory committee might meet. A central location in the building is desirable for both school and community purposes. If the homemaking teacher is responsible for the administration of the cafeteria, the homemaking center should be close to it.

In a rural school of from 600 to 700 pupils, in which there would be only one homemaking teacher, it would be possible to carry on an adequate type of family-life and homemaking education in a center approximately 45 by 24 feet. Within this space could be included a general homemaking room with two home-type kitchens separated from a living-clothing center by portable screens or movable partitions, and a small room for storage and workshop facilities. A somewhat larger space, 50 by 24 feet, could provide additional kitchens. Several floor plans with accompanying descriptions are suggested in a recent publication by the United States Office of Education.[1] Among them is one which has been worked out by the New York State Education Department for a 50- by 24-foot space, which would be well suited to a school of this size.[2]

It is assumed that in a school which has a registration of from 1,000 to 1,500 pupils, there would be two homemaking teachers. An appropriate plan for such a situation is portrayed by the State Department of Education in Georgia in the bulletin mentioned above.[3] This space measures 89 by 23 feet and includes a food preparation and laundry combination center for one teacher and a clothing-furnishing combination room for the other, with a living unit and storage space which is available to both.

Some schools in the rural areas offer canning facilities to the women in the community. The school cafeteria can be so planned as to offer more adequate equipment for this purpose than is possible in the homemaking center.[4]

The Garage. During recent years many school-owned garages have been built. Their number is likely to increase as districts turn to district ownership of busses. The National Council on School House Construction makes the following general recommendations, among others: (1) small garages may be located on the school grounds, but if the fleet numbers 15 to 20 busses, the garages should be located at a sufficient distance from the school building that there is no danger to the pupils from backing vehicles; (2) if the garage is located on the school grounds, approaches to the garage should not separate the school building from the recreation area; (3) for county school districts, maintenance garages should be located at the county seat, or the most central point from the standpoint of the transportation program; (4) if the garage is located on the school grounds, it is usually desirable for the architectural design to be in harmony with the design of the school building, but it should not be an integral part of the school building; (5) garages should not be more than one story high, with wall, partitions, and roof constructed of fire-resistant material, while floors should be concrete and properly pitched to floor drains or gutters; (6) if storage units of more than seven stalls are used, it will be more economical to construct them in tandem.[1]

---

[1] Lee, Ata. *Space and Equipment for Homemaking Programs.* Bulletin No. 9. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), Division of Vocational Education, 1950.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 9.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

[4] This statement about the home-economics center has been prepared by Margaret Hutchins, Professor of Home Economics Education, Cornell University.

Other Rooms. Space limitations make it impossible to describe even briefly other types of rooms needed in the rural school building offering a modest-to-satisfactory program. The reader is referred to the bibliography for sources of information regarding the gymnasium, the science room or suite, the industrial-arts shop, the health suite, the guidance office or suite, the cafeteria or lunchroom, the business-education suite, the administrative suite, teachers' rest rooms, and provision for group and individual instruction in music and art.

Color Scheme. New ideas as to the use of color in school buildings are being considered and, in some cases, subjected to research so as to get objective evidence as to their value. Utility alone (often suggesting too much use of dark colors) is no longer considered to be the only criterion. Making the room, especially the classroom, attractive to pupils is a first consideration. The New York City board of education has published a bulletin that suggests several desirable combinations.[2] In each case the ceiling is white with 85 per cent reflectivity. The walls may be light blue-green (54.2 per cent reflectivity), ivory (65.8 per cent reflectivity), pearl gray (58.6 per cent), peach (61.7 per cent), or yellow (76.2 per cent), etc. With each color a dado of darker, matching color is used on the lower part of the walls to reduce the effects of daily use. The particular color combination should, of course, be selected in terms of the function of the room and the physical conditions affecting it. If a number of color combinations are used in different rooms (sometimes even in the same room), the effect is likely to be more pleasing to the eye and therefore to create a more cheerful environment for pupil activity. Some of the large paint companies have suggestions useful for enlivening the walls of the various rooms in a school building.

In fact, the use of a more cheerful color scheme, especially when accompanied by changes in school furniture, may often make a dismal building, that is not yet ready to be declared obsolescent or that the community believes it is not financially able to discard, into a reasonably attractive building.

---

[1] Hamon, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 80–84.

[2] *Color; Planning School Interiors.* New York: Board of Education.

The Site. In size, the site should be large enough to provide adequate space for the building including the school garage, for landscaping, for necessary roads, and for recreation.

The trend is undoubtedly toward larger sites. This may well be desirable in the rural areas, especially where adequate land can ordinarily be secured at reasonable cost. The size of the site will naturally be determined by the facilities made available. The National Council on School House Construction suggests a minimum of 5 acres for an elementary school, with 1 acre in addition for each 100 pupils of probable maximum enrollment. For junior and senior high schools it suggests that there be a minimum of 10 acres, plus 1 acre for each 100 pupils of estimated enrollment. The kindergarten children should have available at least 5,000 square feet. It is often desirable to separate this area from the rest of the elementary playground by a fence or a hedge. For buildings housing 12 grades and a kindergarten, a minimum of 12 acres of land is suggested by New York.

Depending upon the size of the enrollment and the scope of the recreational program, facilities for any or all of the following recreational activities may be desirable: baseball, football, track, soccer, softball, archery, speedball, lacrosse, tennis, shuffleboard, badminton, handball, volleyball, horseshoe pits. In a rural community where the recreational program is still developing, it will be wise to provide the special facilities required for a particular activity only when the need arises. This assumes the existing site is large enough for this purpose or that adjacent land may be purchased. If the school grounds are used for general community as well as school recreation, provision should be made for floodlighting those areas likely to be used at night.

If the school grounds are used for general community purposes and if there are no available picnic areas for the community elsewhere, space for picnicking can be justified. This should be on the outer edge of the school site in order to interfere as little as possible with the activities of the school children. Such a picnic area should be provided with tables, chairs, and fireplaces.

An adjacent wood or stream may be set aside for the teaching of nature study.

In general, a school building serving the needs of a rural village and its contiguous farm areas should be built near enough to the central village that it will not be necessary to transport all the children. Twenty-five years ago it was not uncommon to place a consolidated or centralized school in the open country. The idea was that farm people often disliked having their children subjected to the influences of the village, especially during the noon hour. That idea, however, is now dying out. Since one criterion for the location of a school site is its centrality for all pupils in the district, objective measures of centrality may be secured by comparing the number of pupil-miles involved in getting pupils to each of two or more prospective sites.

If an adequate acreage is to be available, the school can seldom be located in the center of the village. While centrality and size of site should be important factors in determining the location, freedom from traffic hazards and from smoke, dirt, and noise due to nearby railroads, highways, or airplane routes should also be considered.

The site should be high enough that it is unlikely to be flooded from nearby streams or from the surface water of nearby hills or mountains. The soil should provide good drainage.

General Design. Among the problems of general design that must be dealt with by a community, two merit special consideration.

One-story vs. Two-story Buildings. In recent years there has been a tendency to construct school buildings of one story rather than the two (or more) stories to which we have long been accustomed. The argument for the one-story structure starts with the function of the classroom—to provide a place in which learning takes place not only through individual recitations of the traditional, formal type but also through individual informal activities in the activity alcove and in the library, and both formal and informal group activities as described in the paragraph above on the elementary classroom. These newer learning experiences require a larger room, and they create new problems of lighting that can be met by one-story construction. Other arguments for the one-story building are greater flexibility in adding rooms than in the case of the two-story building; an opportunity to use the playground as a part of the instructional program; greater safety from fire hazards; freedom from the necessity of having small children run up and down stairs; and a probable lower cost because of the elimination of stairs and the use of less expensive materials in the construction of walls.

Against the one-story building are two powerful and related arguments—the desire of many communities to have a school building that makes an impressive monument to its interest in education, and the tendency for most people to dislike radical, new designs in architecture. But attitudes may change as the result of reflection and experience, and if the one-story building can be shown to be educationally superior, a new standard for appraisal will develop. Whatever the final decision of the community on this problem, it is evident that thoughtful consideration should be given to it. In this connection it should be noted that Walter Cocking, editor of the *School Executive*, found that of 3,316 public school buildings constructed in 1949, approximately 70 per cent were one story in height.

The factor of land values that may be important in cities will not be a determining factor in most rural communities.

The Campus School. There is also somewhat of a tendency for the all-inclusive school building to give way to several buildings located on one site. Thus there may be a building for the elementary grades; one for the academic high school subjects; one for agriculture, industrial arts, and industrial education; a home-economics cottage; a gymnasium with playing fields nearby; an auditorium; and such others as may be needed. Various combinations of units may be made.

In favor of this type of building plan, the arguments may be made that it permits a segregation of pupils of different levels of development or with different interests, yet permits all to mingle as may seem desirable; it is more flexible in that new units may be added to the plant without creating serious problems of over-all balance in design; the remodeling of particular units to serve changing needs probably creates fewer problems of construction; and it probably simplifies the matter of relating the educational functions to the buildings. For example, the elementary playground will naturally be near the elementary building; the older youth's and adults' game areas, near the gymnasium; and the major parking area near the auditorium.

Against this plan it may be urged that it is probably more expensive (but since no careful study of costs appears yet to have been made, this argument must be held in abeyance for the present); unless the buildings are connected by a covered runway, it will be necessary either to duplicate wardrobe facilities in the several buildings for raincoats and overcoats or encourage pupils to risk their health; and, unless the buildings are placed reasonably close to each other, the time required for passing from, say, a class in physics to a class in farm mechanics is increased. The argument that the campus school is less aesthetic is probably not valid; aesthetic beauty will be determined not so much by the fact that there is a single building as by the location and design of each building and the landscaping of the entire site.

This problem will assume increasing importance as larger schools in the rural areas develop through consolidation. Again, the community should give careful consideration to this matter before a building program is actually initiated.

The One-teacher School. Over the years many of the existing 60,000 one-teacher schools in the United States will disappear, being absorbed into the central or consolidated school. Many, however, cannot be discontinued in the near future and some probably never can be because of isolation.

If a one-teacher building is to be erected or an old one remodeled, every reasonable effort should be made to get away from the traditional "boxcar" type of building. A small porch does much to make the "boxcar" building seem more homelike. Within the building there should be provided a small kitchen for preparing parts of the noonday lunch, a heater room, a cloakroom, and two toilet rooms. The classroom area should provide a library corner and an activity alcove. In the latter should be a work bench and sink. The classroom should be equipped with desk-chairs or individual chairs and tables, not with seats fastened to the floor.

More attention should be given to the location of such a building than was done when most of our present one-teacher buildings were erected. The site should be sufficiently large that adequate playground space with its equipment is available, and the building should be so located on the site that attractive landscaping is possible. If the building is to be used as a community center, additional space is desirable. One way of doing this is to provide a basement with a play and recreation room which may be used by adult groups even while school is in session, but there should be no thought that this room might sometime be used as a classroom. An alternative to the basement room is a room opening off the classroom and a part of it, with the possibility of separating the classroom from the recreation room by heavy curtains or sliding or folding doors. When the school is to be used as a community center, it will usually be desirable to provide a somewhat larger kitchen.

The Branch Elementary School. As was indicated in Chapter 5, it is frequently sound policy to build an elementary school in a hamlet even though that hamlet is a part of a larger school district. Such a branch school not only reduces the amount of transportation required, but provides also a small community center for citizens in that area. Such a building should provide a sufficient number of classrooms to meet the needs, a combined gymnasium and auditorium, a small office for the principal, a small room which may be used as a branch of the district or county library system, and a kitchen. The kitchen will need to be next to the auditorium-gymnasium so that meals may be served in it. There is now on the market a new type of metal table seating approximately ten pupils that may be set into the wall and, when folded, will be flush with the wall. If these tables seem too expensive, it is possible, of course, to use wooden or steel tables that may be folded and stored when not in use. A small room for a nurse is sometimes desirable also. This enables the nurse from the central office to give physical examinations or to have conferences with individual pupils and their parents. A branch school of this type is described on page 94.

The Teacherage. In many rural communities it is extremely difficult for teachers to find satisfactory places where they may room and board. Because of this, some school boards are finding it desirable to build a home for teachers.

For the one-teacher school, Cyr and Linn[1] present plans used in California for adding these accommodations to the school building. One of these plans includes a bedroom, a bath, a kitchen, and a closet. Another plan provides a bedroom, a bath, and a living room in which provision is made for cooking and serving meals. Such a place where the teacher may have what is, in effect, her own home has real advantages in that she can entertain her friends without fear that she is disturbing others. However, isolation has psychological and sometimes physical hazards. These must be weighed. Building a small home for the teacher near another home may be preferable to having it attached to the school building.

In a larger school, the board of education may provide a home for the principal and his family and one or more homes for a small group of teachers. Some school districts, especially when the school is in the open country, provide a dormitory that may include large apartments for the families of the principal and the married teachers and small apartments for one or more unmarried teachers. Here the problem is one of keeping the school staff from living too much to themselves. This can be overcome.

State Aid for Buildings. Until recently the theory seems to have prevailed that the school building should be provided by the community without financial assistance. Since the Second World War, however, the tremendously expanding need for school-building facilities is causing this concept to be reexamined. In many cases it is a practical impossibility for the rural community to finance a desirable building without state or possibly Federal aid.

New York is one of the states that has challenged the concept of entire community responsibility for school buildings. It is true that a few states had made some provision, especially for consolidated schools, before New York took action, but usually the aid was not sufficient to have a significant influence upon the development of better facilities in the rural areas.

In 1925, when the New York central-district law of 1914 was revitalized, provision was made for the payment by the state of one-fourth of the cost of any new building required, provided the plans were approved by the State Education Department. It has, undoubtedly, been a powerful factor in the development of the central district in New York. In 1941, the law was revised so as to provide aid, not on a flat percentage basis, but in accordance with an equalization principle.

As of 1947–1948, 17 states had provided some form of state aid for school buildings. In Connecticut, Missouri, Rhode Island, Pennsylvania, and Vermont, the amount of aid was small, being chiefly for equipment for small buildings. In Louisiana and Virignia the aid was available for vocational buildings only. Massachusetts and Washington have in recent years developed a liberal program of state aid. No general pattern of building aid has yet emerged.[1]

---

[1] Cyr, Linn, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 144, 145.

However, we seem to be tending toward the adoption of two principles: (1) a recognition that the school building is an important phase of the educational program, and should, therefore, be considered in the state financing of the total educational program; and (2) a recognition that any aid so given should be on the basis of some equalizing factor.

It will take many years to make such policies effective throughout the country, but action may be expected as the current (1950) need for more and better school buildings becomes more acute. We may also expect some Federal assistance, especially if business should decline. Numerous bills based upon different conceptions as to what the Federal government should do have been introduced into Congress. As of 1950, there appears to be no prospect of early passage of any of these bills. However, the government has provided money for educational plant planning in the states.

Special Facilities for School-community Program. With the growth of school-community programs in our rural areas, the problem of housing these programs adequately is brought into the focus of attention. In some cases—*e.g.*, adult classes in academic subjects—little or no modification of regular facilities is usually needed. However, a hobby class in industrial arts should have a place where projects may be stored so as not to interfere with the regular school program; unit heating is usually desirable when the auditorium, gymnasium, or other room is used at night; the library when used also as a community library should have an outside entrance and may require a partially separated room for adults; a general community room available at any time of the day or night may be useful; and if the school grounds are open to the community for recreational purposes certain special provisions are much to be desired. Kullman[2] has analyzed the facilities available in schools providing superior school-community programs and, with the assistance of architects and school administrators, has suggested a set of standards that appears to be desirable. These standards relate to the location in the building of the facilities, the size and layout of the school grounds, special facilities and equipment in the classroom, desirable administrative facilities, and the like.

---

[1] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, pp. 217, 218.

[2] Kullman, N. E., Jr. *School Plant Facilities Desirable for Community Use in a Community-school Program*. Ph.D. Thesis. Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1950.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Read widely on the question of one-story vs. two-story buildings until you understand the advantages and disadvantages of each. In your judgment, which would be preferable for your community? Do the same for the campus type of school plant.

2. Draw plans to scale for either a one-teacher building that will include facilities for neighborhood meetings or an elementary school that is a branch school in a community or centralized district. Plan also a site desirable as to size and location and indicate the types of play space that should be laid out and the play apparatus that should be provided.

3. Draw plans to scale for a school-community library in your community, indicating its location in the school building (or near it, if you favor a campus type of school layout). Show the placement of tables, circulation desk, stacks, and other important equipment. How would you separate this library from the rest of the building when school is not in session?

4. Prepare plans to scale for a five-year development of an outdoor community recreational program on your school grounds. Indicate where you would place the football and baseball fields, the horseshoe court, and all similar special recreation areas.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Best, Clarence J. *Music Rooms and Equipment.* Chicago: Music Educator's National Conference, 1949.

Cocking, Walter D. *School Plant Trends.* New York: The American School Publishing Company, 1949.

Color; Planning School Interiors. New York: Board of Education. (Includes standard color "chips.")

Cyr, Frank W., Linn, Henry H., *et al. Planning Rural Community School Buildings.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949.

Hamon, Ray L., *et al. Guide for Planning School Plants.* Nashville, Tenn.: National Council on Schoolhouse Construction (W. D. McClurkin, Secretary, Peabody College for Teachers), 1949.

Harmon, Darrell B. *The Coordinated Classroom.* Grand Rapids, Mich.: The American Seating Company, 1949.

Lee, Ata. *Space and Equipment for Homemaking Programs.* Bulletin No. 9. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency), Division of Vocational Education, 1950.

New York State Education Department. A series of bulletins on various phases of the school plant, several of which deal with the central school district. Albany.

Perkins, Lawrence B., and Cocking, Walter D. *Schools.* New York: Reinhold Publishing Corporation, 1949.

Stonecipher, Ernest E. *School Buildings, Grounds, and Equipment for Elementary Schools in Small School Systems.* Pittsburg, Kans.: State Teachers College, 1948.

White, Warren T., *et al. American School Buildings.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1949.

Journals

In each issue of these journals in school administration, there is a section devoted to school buildings:

American School Board Journal. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company.

The Nation's Schools. Chicago: The Nation's Schools Division of the Modern Hospital Publishing Company.

The School Executive. New York: The American School Publishing Corporation.

In addition, the following annual publication is devoted entirely to school buildings and their equipment:

American School and University. New York: The American School Publishing Corporation.

CHAPTER 24

IMPROVING THE TAX PROGRAM

School districts in the United States collected in 1942 an aggregate tax revenue of $1,052 million, of which $1,051 million was from the levy on property.[1] The amount from other sources was not segregated in 1948 and so must have been extremely small.[2] Local tax revenue for the financing of school expenditures is obtained almost exclusively from the impost on property. In many and perhaps most states no other local source is utilized.

Any program of improvement therefore in the provision for revenue raises questions that center around both the property tax and the possibility of levying other imposts. Does the taxation of property have merit as a means of obtaining money for the rural school? Can the administration of the tax be made to serve the purposes better? If so, what results are to be expected? Do other taxes offer practicable sources of revenue to the rural district? Should any such money be taken, or ought broader considerations to govern?

The Taxation of Property. Real estate is the chief subject, by a wide margin, of the property tax, or the only one. In practice, any discussion of the impost on property is substantially of the application to land and improvements. The farms, village residences and business establishments, utility lines, railroad tracks, or other real property located outside urban areas compose the underlying economic foundation of the source, and their value is the base on which the tax is levied.

The rate is not fixed, but varies, below the ceiling imposed by the tax limitation,[3] with the need for revenue, and the assessed valuation of the real estate. The determination is, indeed, by a formula: the estimated expenditures of the district for the school, less the amount of state aid or any other receipts, when divided by the aggregate assessment, gives the rate at which the property is to be taxed.

---

[1] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Revised Summary of State and Local Government Finance in 1942.* Washington, D.C., 1948, Table 1.

[2] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Governmental Revenue in 1948.* Washington, D.C., 1949, Table 4.

[3] The restriction is much more binding in states with a constitutional provision for an over-all limitation.

Advantages. The property tax has marked advantages to a local government, and the smaller the size of the unit, the greater are the benefits to be received from the use of this source. Such subdivisions cannot employ professional help, but must depend on the part-time services of elected officials. These men have neither the qualifications nor the time to make estimates of the size of the bases on which taxes might be imposed, and calculations of the probable amount of revenue that could be obtained.

The rural school district, in particular, gains much by resort to property taxation. The assessed valuation to which the rate applies is a known total. The school board does not have the doubtful and difficult task of making estimates of the base of the impost. Moreover, within the ceiling of the tax limitation, the method of determining the rate makes the yield flexible. As expenditures are increased or other sources (principally state aid) supply less, the additional revenue needed can be obtained. When expenditures are less or other receipts increase, the reduction indicated is reflected by an arithmetical calculation in a lower rate of taxation. Similarly any change in the assessed valuation, whatever the cause, is taken into account. No state legislation or action by an administrative agency is required. The adjustment, which is made locally, is of a simple mathematical kind. Except in periods of substantial tax delinquency,[1] the yield needed to balance the school budget can be collected. Both the embarrassment raised by the disposition of a surplus, and the difficulty of financing a deficit, are avoided.

If the district borrows for a new building or other capital improvement, the buyers of the bonds find in the valuation of the real estate the best kind of security for the contractual payment of the interest and principal sum. Such property cannot escape from the district but must remain for the taxgatherer. The valuation is many times the size of the loan. Long experience establishes that a large revenue, some of which is available for debt service, can be collected by an impost on this source. Moreover, data on assessed valuations and on the revenues obtained by their taxation are available for long periods. Trends can be established, and thereby the evidence of the past can be brought to bear on the determination of the probability of the future.

Pending the examination of the possibilities offered by other local taxes, it will be assumed that these could replace only a small part of the revenue from property taxation. If such be accepted for the interim, the elimination of this source would require that the revenue surrendered be supplied by the state. The financial decisions of the district then would be concerned in the main with spending and not with paying. Attention would be centered in the benefits to be obtained, and small regard would be given to their cost.

---

[1] The most important cause is a severe business depression, but even that influence will not produce delinquency everywhere.

But any community that subsisted almost exclusively on state aid would exchange responsibility for dependency. In the transfer, much of the substance of local self-government would be lost. The decisions both on the amount of revenue available to the unit and on many of the expenditures would be made by the state.

Moreover, the implications of the change would be of large significance for democracy itself. The operations of local units are near the people, and consequently the effects are seen by those most interested. This is particularly true of the functions of the school district. For nine or ten months of the year, the children attend school, and bring back word of classes, lessons, and activities. Parental interest in the work of the school and in the associated problems of raising and spending the money required is a base on which interest in government can be grounded. To reduce that concern by removing an important part of the functions of the district would be to weaken the supports of democratic government generally.[1]

Criticisms. Few imposts have been subjected to so many criticisms as the property tax. The application of the earlier concept of a levy on *all* property, as well as the limitation to real estate, has met with objections.

Professor Harold Groves has compiled a list of the various adverse considerations that have been urged.[2] Those that have a bearing on the real-estate base will be examined. The amount of the property tax is said to be a poor measure of the benefits received by the taxpayers from public services; to be deficient in not being related to personal abilities; to have a low correlation with the income of the property; to take a higher proportion of the income of the poor than of the rich; and to be a burden on shelter. In practice, the tax is said to encourage colonization or settlement in units with low rates, and to be imposed on numerous inequitable valuations.

Many services of local government are of special advantage to owners of real estate as a group. This is certainly true of the keeping of law and order, the maintenance of streets and roads, the giving of protection from fire, and the collection of garbage. It is probable, too, that the quality of the public education affects the value of the real property in the district. People like to live near a good school. Nevertheless, the payments made by individuals have only a slight relationship to the separate benefits received by them from the expenditure of revenue. For example, the bachelor who pays taxes on a farm worth $10,000 does not receive so much in return from the local school as his neighbor who owns real estate of equal valuation, but who has several children.

---

[1] Strong arguments, on political grounds, for property taxation by local units are to be found in Hicks, J. R. and U. K., and Lesser, C. E. V. *The Problem of Valuation for Rating.* National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Occasional Papers, VII. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1944, pp. 6–11.

See also Hicks, Ursala K. *Public Finance.* Cambridge Economic Handbook. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1947, pp. 265–267.

[2] Groves, Harold M. *Financing Government,* rev. ed. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1945, pp. 62–73.

The difficulty, however, is not with the accuracy of this contention, but with the validity for the purpose. The benefit theory is receiving less emphasis in modern taxation. Few taxes are justified on that ground. The imposts on personal and corporation income and on inheritance or estates, and the excises and like charges on sales are defended for other reasons. Indeed, with the exception of the gasoline tax and license on the motor vehicle, the case for the property tax as a benefit levy is much better than that of other imposts.

The value of personal abilities is not included in the base of the property tax. The skill of the surgeon, the knowledge of law possessed by the attorney, and the generalized talents of the business executive, even though yielding a large income, are not taxed as property. The reason, however, is clear and decisive. Such qualities are *not* property. They are neither bought nor sold, and indeed cannot be transferred from one person to another. Only the derived services are offered for sale and purchased. But the wages, salaries, fees, or commissions received in exchange are income and subject to the tax on that source. Again the objection is without relevance.

It is common for the amount of the taxes on property to bear only a slight relationship to the current income realized from the use. The sale of the products may not pay the expenses of a farm in a given year, or the receipts of a business cover costs, yet the tax on the real estate will have to be paid. Even so, to stress the lack of correlation between tax payments and income is, in effect, to assert that property should be taxed on the income, instead of on the capital or market value. This objection is, logically, to the method employed, not to the taxation of property. Real estate if subjected to an impost on the annual rent would still be taxed.

A poor man who owns his home will usually pay a higher proportion of his income in taxes on real estate than will a rich man, also a home owner. The explanation is simple. As a person gains wealth, the value of his house or country estate does not increase by the same percentage. A smaller share of his income will therefore be paid in the taxes on the property. But such an outcome does not give the slightest ground for objection to the property tax.

Improvements as well as land are subject to taxation as property. The builder of a residence or an apartment house knows that he must make an annual payment on the assessed valuation. Undoubtedly the supply of living accommodations is limited by the presence of the charge on them.[1] But in appraising that effect, the fact should be recognized that with the costs of government large, the taxation of consumer expenditures is unavoidable. Sales taxes, for example, result in higher prices that lessen purchases. The Federal personal income tax with low exemptions and a substantial beginning rate restricts buying at the source by leaving the consumer less money to spend. True, the limitation made by sales taxes, and more particularly by those on income, is general, and by the property tax, specific. An objection on that ground, however, is not to the barrier as such, but to the possible discrimination involved in the erection. In an evaluation of that question, consideration should be given to any special benefit afforded by the expenditure of the revenue.

A tax colony is a settlement of persons electing a given location in order to save property taxes. Undoubtedly differences in rates tempt some individuals to live in certain places. But with stocks, bonds, and other intangible property either exempt from taxation or not adequately assessed locally, the advantages of tax colonization are limited, in practice, to the savings made in the impost on real estate. Such gains, though, are only one element in the problem of deciding where to buy or to build a house. It is probable that the quality of the neighborhood, the price of real estate, the distance from work, and the facilities for travel to and from work are more important.

The property tax is on the assessed valuation. That is the basis on which the amount is allocated among owners of real estate. The objection that the determination is often inequitable is properly to the administration, not to the impost itself. Nevertheless, the question raised is of large significance to the rural school district or other unit of local government relying on revenue from this source. With a given performance of the assessment function, the contribution of the tax to the public treasury depends on the rate and the size of the base. But if the quality of the assessment were improved so that each owner paid in proportion to the actual value of his property, the base might be enlarged and the possibility opened of obtaining more revenue as it is needed. In addition, there would be greater fairness in the treatment of taxpayers.

Is the assessment of real estate inequitable in an important degree? Can improvements be made? These questions go to the heart of the issue of local support of the rural school.

---

[1] The tax on the land could not decrease the supply of buildings.

Inequalities of Assessment. Few subjects have been investigated so thoroughly as the assessment of real estate. Literally dozens of studies have been made. The situation in many states has been examined, usually with emphasis on the rural phase. Overassessment of low-value as compared with high-value real estate is common. Thus in Arkansas rural properties worth less than $600 were found to be assessed at 113.4 per cent of their estimated value, and properties said to be worth $40,000 or more at 39.2 per cent.[1] As a higher proportion of the land was in crops and the productivity increased, the ratio of the assessment to the value declined. In Montana, a similar comparison disclosed that lands of low productivity were overassessed as compared with high.[2] The much more numerous studies in which the assessed value was related to the sales value disclosed the overassessment of low-value properties, and consequently their overtaxation, to be general in the country as a whole.

But the defects in the assessment of real estate are not limited to a single type of error. Inequalities of all kinds abound. Properties of the same value may be entered on the assessment roll at widely different figures. Farms that have been sold recently may be assessed higher than others that have not been transferred for long intervals. Occasionally the assessor fails to find a farm. More frequently he does not include the entire area. Studies in Connecticut, Arizona, and South Carolina all disclosed properties or acreage not listed for taxation. Copying of the preceding assessment roll is common. Thus economic changes that lower the value of property in some areas, and increase it in others, may not be reflected in the assessment for many years, with the result that some persons pay more than they should and others less. The situation in Virginia will illustrate this problem at its worst. In that state, the office of assessor does not exist in rural counties. A special assessment of real estate may, however, be authorized once in four years by a resolution of the board of supervisors. But in practice there are comparatively few such declarations. Many counties have not had a thoroughgoing revision of assessments in seventy-five years.[3]

A related type of error is the general reluctance of assessors to change the valuations on their rolls in correspondence with broad economic movements. In New York, for example, the aggregate assessment of real property was less in 1946 than in 1931, despite the fact that all economic indicators pointed to a great increase in the valuation.[1]

---

[1] Sparlin, Estal E. *Inequalities in the Arkansas Assessment System.* Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin No. 369. Fayetteville, Ark.: University of Arkansas, 1939.

[2] Renne, R. R., and Lord, H. H. *Assessment of Montana Farm Lands.* Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin No. 348. Bozeman, Mont.: Montana State College, 1937.

[3] Information obtained by the author in 1942 from a high state tax official in Virginia.

These defects, though not universal—there is some good assessment—are widespread. Moreover, they are in the administration of a tax that yields a large revenue, not only for the public schools, but also for the purposes of local government. Significant differences are made in the treatment of taxpayers.

Provisions for Assessment. Any movement for better assessment should begin with the task and the provisions now made for its performance. What has to be done for real estate to be assessed? What is the governmental unit of assessment? Is the assessor provided with the equipment needed for the performance of his duties? How is the assessor selected? How well is he paid? What is his term of office? Is his work supervised?

Property has to be listed in order to be assessed. The assessor must find all parcels of real estate within his district before he can place a value on them. And he needs also to know the acreage of each and the buildings if the entire property is to be taxed.

The next step is the valuation. Usually the law provides that the full market worth shall be determined. Thus the price at which the real estate was sold might appear to be the test. But there are only a few sales in any one year as compared with the total number of real properties. For example, in no year from 1926 to 1946 were more than 71 out of each 1,000 farms in the United States transferred.[2] Many of these changes of ownership, however, were between persons trading for reasons other than market considerations. Included were foreclosures of mortgages, transfers arising from bankruptcy proceedings, losses of title by default, and conveyances between relatives. With all such transactions eliminated, the annual number of true sales ranged for the period from 16.2 to 59.9 per thousand farms.

Although the assessor who would do good work will make use of sales values carefully selected for their reliability, he must depend in the main on an analysis of the economic factors in the situation that are believed to affect the value of each property in his district. The number of acres of productive land in a farm as compared with the waste area, the kind of soil, the shape of the holding, the topography, the distance from market, the quality of the road, the state of the buildings, and many other elements should be considered. In a village, still different factors are to be examined. And wherever the property is located, rental or other income data should be obtained.

---

[1] For a comparison of the assessment of real estate with wholesale prices, the value of farm real estate, the cost of a new house, the national income, and other factors, see Kendrick, M. Slade. *The Property Tax as a Fiscal Instrument in New York State.* Fiscal Policy for Public Education in New York State, Staff Study No. 7. Albany: New York State Educational Conference Board and Public Education Association of New York City, 1948, p. 34.

[2] U.S. Department of Agriculture. *Farm Real Estate Situation.* Washington, D.C.

There are no rules by which the contribution of each of these factors to the value of the real estate can be determined and the sum obtained. The assessor may gather numerous facts and seek the opinions of real-estate men, appraisal experts, and other informed persons. But in the end he must exercise the quality of judgment and must place upon the assessment roll a valuation the accuracy of which cannot be proved. The chief purpose to be served is equality with the assessment of other properties. If all are treated alike, the question of correspondence with the actual market valuations is of small practical importance.[1] The taxpayer, however, is aware only of the assessment of his particular property, not of the general situation. His interest lies in a *lower* assessment, one that will decrease the amount of the tax. And the very fact that the correctness of the official figure cannot be established gives him an opening. Thus the assessor is under pressure to reduce the valuations on various individual properties. Perhaps equally disturbing is the knowledge that increases will be resisted.

Most governmental units for the assessment of property are small. Of the 26,304 primary or original assessment divisions[2] in the United States, 17,625 are town or township, and 439 are school and civil district units.[3] Obviously the areas included in this classification are mostly rural, and the volume of work required for the valuation of the property in each district is small. Under such conditions, assessment becomes a part-time occupation. Only a few days or weeks of labor are required. Specialized training for the duties is out of question. The assessor who would earn his living must have other work or interests.

In the usual district, little equipment or other assistance is provided for assembling the economic factors on which an estimate of the valuation of the real estate can be founded. The assessment roll, writing paper, pencils, and pens are about all the supplies for the performance of a technical task.

By far the great majority of assessors are chosen by election. More than

---

[1] But under a good assessment the relationship between the two is likely to be much closer than under a poor one.

[2] The original assessment is sometimes overlapped by a secondary assessment, as when property already assessed for town purposes is also subject to the village assessment.

[3] National Association of Assessing Officers. *Assessment Organization and Personnel.* Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons Company, 1941, p. 38.

90 per cent of the primary districts use this method of selection.[1] With one important exception, any person who can meet the usual requirements of residence, age, and citizenship may run for the office of assessor in a rural district. In Kentucky, the passing of an examination, designed to make certain that the candidate has a minimum standard of fitness for the duties of the position, must precede standing for election.

Assessors in towns, townships, or other subdivisions are poorly paid for the days of work done. The remuneration in counties, which is on a full-time salary basis, is more, but not attractive in view of the difficulties encountered in the task.

In more than two-thirds of the primary assessment districts, the term of office is two years or less.[2] Thus the assessor who wishes to be continued in his position must always be on his good political behavior. With such a short period between elections, the unofficial task of pleasing the right people becomes important, a matter not of smiles only. Reduced assessments may be more effective.

The work of the assessor is usually not supervised. Indeed, the state tax commission, which is sometimes given supervisory powers, is about the only agency qualified to oversee his performance. Actually, however, commissions are reluctant to order a reassessment of the properties of a district or to institute other forceful measures, but prefer to limit the activities in this area to the giving of advice and information, the preparation of forms, the issuing of regulations, the conduct of schools for assessors, and like assistance. A person who owes his office to the voters has political power and so is in a good position to disregard the directions of an appointed official.

In view of the inadequacy of the legislative provision for the assessment of rural property, it is not surprising that the task is usually poorly performed. Indeed, good assessment wherever found is the occasion for wonder.

The Improvement of Assessment. What could be done to improve assessment? Several sweeping changes, designed to deal with the fundamentals of the problem, should be made. Such alterations are the responsibility of the state legislature. The rural district has no power in the matter, but functions only within the established pattern. That unit, however, places large dependence on the property tax and so would gain were the assessment, the most important part of the administration, bettered.

1. *The assessment unit everywhere should be at least as large as the area of a county.* This provision is necessary in order that the work require the full time of the assessor and thus provide the economic foundation for ade-

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 157.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 161.

quate compensation.[1] Unless the position is made attractive, capable persons cannot be induced to qualify for performance of the duties.

2. *Adequate equipment should be provided and suitable procedures instituted.* The first and most important item is an adequate series of tax maps. With all the farms, residences, and other parcels of property in the district shown, their discovery would be assured, and all would be assessed. Tax maps are of two kinds. The general or over-all maps cover large sections and thus permit comparisons in broad terms. For example, the valuation of the property in one area may be compared with that in another for the purpose of noting discrepancies. The detailed maps show the boundaries of each farm or other piece of real estate, and the area or dimensions. The outlines of improvements may be sketched and the quality or the topography of the soil indicated. But even the simplest map will show the size, shape, and location of each property and thus facilitate the determination of the value relationships.

Property cards should also be provided and their use required. Each would be keyed by a number to a property shown on the map. Such cards give the means of assembling and keeping the essential facts and records that support the assessed valuation. The detailed description of the land, and the buildings, fences, or other improvements, should be supplemented by sales prices with dates, offers known to have been received, loan or insurance appraisals, and information on rental or other property income.

3. *The assessor and any assistant assessors should be appointed on the basis of qualifications.* The duties of assessment are of a technical character. Election by popular vote, except in isolated instances, has not served to place qualified persons in office.

But to say that the assessor should be appointed is to raise the question "By whom?" Clearly a political selection would not ensure the choice of a person with the necessary abilities. There is, however, real difficulty in eliminating political considerations. The work of assessment affects directly a large and influential group, the owners of real estate. Besides, the duties performed are the most important part of the administration of the property tax, the chief source of local revenue. In view of the interest of owners in the valuations placed on their properties for purposes of taxation, and of the strength of the feeling that local functions should be subject to home rule, the passage by any legislature of a measure for the selection of assessors by a body of outside experts is doubtful.

A compromise method might, though, offer a feasible solution. Candidates for the position of assessor could be made to qualify before the state tax commission. Training, experience, and the results of an examination would all be elements in the appraisal of fitness for the work. The board of supervisors in a county needing an assessor would ask for the names of persons willing to be considered for the position and certified as competent. After interviewing each, a selection would be made. Thus assessors would still be chosen locally, and by a body responsible to the voters. But the only persons investigated would have the qualifications for performance of the duties of the office.

---

[1] The argument has been made that the size of the unit should be defined in terms of the volume of work required to assess the property. Such an arrangement has much to recommend it but would raise many difficulties of administration under the proposal made here for the selection of assessors.

In New York, the selection of the county agricultural agent provides an analogy. When a vacancy in the position occurs, three persons having the necessary knowledge and abilities are nominated by the state extension officials. The board of supervisors chooses one from this group. The county agent has many and important duties and is in the trying situation of having to please two masters, the state officials and the local people. But the arrangement for the selection, and the attached joint responsibility, function well.

4. *The remuneration of the assessor should be greatly increased.* If the work of assessment is to be recognized as of a professional character, and the qualifications of the assessors are to correspond, their reward will have to be much more than at present. It should indeed be considerably higher than that of an elected county official. Only a good remuneration would induce persons of the requisite intelligence to acquire the necessary training and experience for the position.

The state might set up an attractive scale of salaries classified by the assessed valuation of the county. This is probably the best single measure of the size of the task and the complexity of the duties. Under such a schedule, and with the selection as indicated, a career in the profession would become possible. An assessor who had proved his merit in a district of low valuation would have the opportunity, as a vacancy occurred in a better position, to be chosen for it. Similarly, assistant assessors might be advanced for demonstrated ability.

The increase might be more acceptable to local units if the state paid part of the salary of the assessor. Since the states that tax property make use of the assessment, and the amount is often an element in the formula for one or more aids to local units, there is a basis for such financial responsibility.

5. *The assessor should hold office during good performance of his duties.* An increase in the assessment of a farm, residence, store, or other item of real estate results in an addition to the taxes of the owner; a decrease, in a reduction. The amount of the change, when multiplied by the full rate of the property tax, may make a considerable difference in the tax obligation.

Thus, as has been indicated, the assessor is under strong local pressure both to keep valuations down generally and to please by low assessments the persons whose support is necessary to his continuance in office.

Security of tenure is particularly important to an official who must work under such conditions. Where duty and expediency conflict, the former is not certain to prevail. Besides, the good assessor who remains in his position becomes better. Such a person will accumulate over the years more and more data bearing on the valuation of the property in his district. He will become familiar with the individual parcels, and will note the economic trends. No general qualifications can be substituted fully for the detailed and specialized knowledge that emerges over time from the intelligent practice of assessment in a given area.

An assessor (or an assistant assessor) should be removed from office only for incompetency. He is employed to value property for tax purposes. His work should be judged by the performance of that task, and not by his personal popularity or political soundness. Perhaps he should be protected from an unwarranted discharge from his position by having the right to a public hearing before representatives of the board of supervisors and the state tax commission. The state officials should be required in such an event to bring forward the results of an investigation. But whether this procedure or some other were followed, safeguards should be provided. Unless the assessor is secure in his position, he cannot be expected to perform his duties without regard to the consequences.

6. *The work of the assessor should be supervised by the state tax commission.* Whatever the care with which assessors were selected, the quality of their performance would vary. Some would become more skilled, while others would seek merely to pass.

The good assessors should be encouraged, and the average stimulated to improve their work. No local board would have the qualifications needed for these supervisory duties. The only agency competent to perform that function is the state tax commission. Such a body could staff a bureau of local assessments with experts and give them the task of overseeing the work of the local assessors. Since the state agency would have certified the qualifications of the local officials, and would have to approve those of any practicing assessors applying for better positions, it would be in an excellent situation to exercise an effective supervision over assessment. The acceptance of suggestions would also be facilitated by the fact that the relations between the state official and the local assessor would be on a professional basis. Both would have had approximately the same training and so would approach the problem from a common viewpoint.

Financial Results of Improved Assessment. The changes to be expected from the adoption of the foregoing recommendations for the assessment of property would have large effects on the use of the tax as a fiscal instrument. The wide inequalities of valuation and therefore of payment that characterize the administration would be reduced in a significant degree. The burden would be distributed much more fairly among taxpayers.

The average level of assessed valuation, which in most districts lags far behind that of the market, would advance greatly. Some gains would arise from the removal of inequalities. The high costs of new houses, for example, would lead to increased assessments for old. The elevated prices obtained for real estate would result in additions to the valuations of equally good properties that were retained by their owners. More important, perhaps, than the desire to correct discrepancies emerging from the altered economic situation would be the effect of making the assessment of property a profession, and of affording protection to the members in the performance of their duties. The assessors who came to office under such conditions could not deny by their practice the fact of a large general increase in the market worth of real estate.

Once assessments were in substantial correspondence with market values, the binding of tax rate limitations would be loosened.[1] A wide margin would appear between the amount now collected and the total yield possible. Within that area, the school district could exercise a choice. It seems probable that the amount of revenue from the taxation of real estate would be increased. The immediate cause would be the need for the additional money. With the obvious local source available, resort to it is to be expected. More fundamental, the tax on real estate is in most areas lower in comparison to the value than the historical relationship between these factors would suggest.

Nonproperty Sources. Since the close of the Second World War, nearly half the states have given increased powers of taxation to units of local government.[2] Cities have usually been the recipients.

But in at least two states, school districts can receive money from such taxes. A district may share in the proceeds of a tax that is imposed and collected by a larger unit. Thus the source, though contributing to the rural school, is used indirectly. Or the district may levy and collect a tax on the source, thus making a direct use of it.

Indirect Use of Sources—New York. Counties outside New York City may tax retail sales, except of food, 2 per cent; restaurant charges of $1 or more, 3 per cent; utility services, 3 per cent; admissions to amusements, 5 per cent; the selling of alcoholic beverages at retail, 25 per cent of the state license; the gross receipts of financial businesses, 3/5 of 1 per cent, and of other enterprises, 3/10 of 1 per cent; coin-operated amusement machines, $25 a year; passenger motor vehicles, $5 or $10, depending on the weight, and commercial vehicles, $10; and the occupancy of hotel rooms at rates in excess of $2 a day, 5 per cent.[1]

---

[1] Most states provide that real estate shall be assessed at full value. Thus it can be argued that the easing of such restrictions would conform to the intention of the law. The same thing could be accomplished by raising the tax limitation, but in practice this is difficult to do.

[2] Walker, Mabel L. "The New Look in City Taxes." *Tax Policy*, Vol. 15, December, 1948.

The revenue received from these sources may be apportioned among the school districts of the county in proportion to the average daily attendance of the pupils, *or* may be allocated to the cities and the rural units on the basis of population. In the event that the latter distribution is chosen, the money received serves to reduce the city and county taxes on real estate.[2]

The provision that a county may impose special taxes gives no assurance that the money received will be expended for educational purposes. And if that election is made, the individual school district has no choice of the sources used or the rates levied, but merely accepts the decision from above and a share in the revenue, which is apportioned in accordance with a prescribed formula that is unrelated to financial ability. It is difficult to see how such an arrangement could either serve particular needs or further local autonomy.

The collection by counties of a tax on retail sales, the only large source of revenue available under the New York law, is much less efficient than by the state. Not only is the unit of administration too small for the best use of resources, but the problems of preventing escape from the tax are much greater, because of the ease with which purchases can be made in untaxed territory. This is particularly true in rural counties located near cities.

If the taxes permitted on the sale of alcoholic beverages and on motor vehicles were collected, use would be made of the administration already provided by the state. The question therefore arises whether the central government should not collect all such revenues, whatever their disposition. Indeed, to have the county levy special taxes for school purposes is to substitute a clumsy and inefficient arrangement for state imposts designed to supply money for distribution in the form of a grant-in-aid.

Only two counties take advantage of the law. Erie taxes retail sales to provide money for schools; and Monroe, the gross receipts of business to reduce the levy on real estate. Both counties are largely urban. No rural county obtains revenue from such imposts.

---

[1] Chapter 278 of Laws of 1947 as amended by Chapter 651 of Laws of 1948.

[2] An exception is provided for cities which by local law or resolution may provide that such money shall be paid directly into the treasury. Additional expenditures could thereby be financed instead of property taxes being lowered.

Direct Use of Sources—Pennsylvania. In 1947, most local units were given authority to levy any tax that could be, but was not, imposed by the state. The only tax excepted from such use was one on the gross receipts of utility companies regulated by the Public Utility Commission of the state. School districts, excluding those in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, were given the new powers of taxation.

Some abuses developed, and as a result the law was amended in 1949. School districts, except in the second or third class, can now collect nonproperty taxes in an amount equivalent to an impost of 15 mills on the value of the taxable property included therein. Second- and third-class districts are subject to no limitation.[1]

Among the taxes that may be imposed and their maximum rates are $15 per capita (including the $5 authorized by the school code); 1 mill on the gross receipts of wholesalers and 1.5 mills on those of retailers; 2 per cent on retail sales; 10 per cent of the admission charges to amusements; 1 per cent on wages, salaries, commissions, or other earned income; and 1 per cent on the sales of real property. But the combined rates of any special taxes levied by a school district and the larger political unit in which located cannot exceed the maximum of the 15-mill equivalent. Personal income from interest, dividends, rents, or profits may be taxed without any limitation. Other imposts, not forbidden to local units, can also be laid. There is no restriction on the rates, except as they be found by the local court to be unreasonable or excessive.

Overlapping units levying the same tax are allowed to enter into joint agreements for the collection of the revenue.

Clearly school districts in Pennsylvania have extremely broad powers of taxation. Unlike the units in New York, these have true autonomy. Within generous limitations, each may resort as it chooses to nonproperty sources. The issue raised is the desirability of granting such freedom, particularly to rural districts. Specifically, ought they to be permitted to tax personal earnings, property income, retail sales, amusements, gross receipts, transfers of real estate, and other sources, including polls?

The taxes on personal income, retail sales, and gross receipts require expert administration. But the amount of revenue received in a school district would not be sufficient to justify the employment of the skilled persons that experience has shown to be needed. Besides, the difficulties of collection are much greater for a small unit than for a large, because of the ease of transferring income or the evidence of its receipt to some place outside the jurisdiction, or of making purchases in untaxed areas.

The taxation of transfers of real estate would require that they be known, that the prices be ascertained, and that appropriate steps be taken to collect the amount due. It is, however, by no means certain that the inexpert local official of a school district entrusted with these tasks would perform them. Not all assessors learn the prices at which real properties are sold in their districts, yet such data are most useful in the work of valuation.

---

[1] Spaulding, Richard C. "Pennsylvania Amends Permissive Local Tax Law." *National Tax Journal*, Vol. 2, September, 1949.

The taxation of polls is unrelated to the income or property that must serve as the source of the payment. The poor man, even if in dire need, is liable to the same payment as the rich. Not only is the impost inequitable, but the amount, if collected, must be low. No local official, dependent on the good will of the voters in the district to hold his position, would require everyone to pay a poll tax of $10 or $15. He might receive the amounts that were offered, but he would not take steps to compel the payment.

The prospect for the successful collection of nonproperty taxes by rural school districts, whether in Pennsylvania or elsewhere, is not favorable. Any additional revenues required from these sources should be collected by the state and distributed in the form of grants-in-aid. Thereby the tax system would be improved, and the greater efficiency and lower cost of state administration would be made to serve the local conduct of public education.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Estimate the market value of a dozen parcels of real estate in your school district and compare with the assessment. Calculate the ratio of the assessed to the market value of each property, and compare with the *average* ratio for the group. Suppose each property were assessed at the average ratio. What would be the difference, more or less, in the amount of the tax? Which assessment is correct, yours or that of the assessor?

2. What nonproperty sources of taxation, assuming that the law permitted, are in your school district? List such items as the income of the residents, the sales of any stores or other business establishments, the receipts of motion-picture shows and ball parks, the number of motor vehicles, and the number of coin-operated amusement devices. Suppose you were hired, on a part-time basis, to collect the taxes on these sources. How would you proceed? Could you find out the income of each resident? How? The sales of each business enterprise? If you were successful in collecting the tax on sales, would people buy as much as before within the district? If they did not, what would be the effect on local business?

3. How much is now collected on property in your school district? Make a conservative estimate of the amount that could be obtained from nonproperty sources. How do the two figures compare?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Assessing and Taxation Needs in New York State. Legislative Document, No. 69. Albany, N.Y.: J. B. Lyon Company, 1943.

Kendrick, M. Slade. *Public Finance.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951.

National Association of Assessing Officers: *Assessment Organization and Personnel.* Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons Company, 1941.

Silverherz, Joseph D. *The Assessment of Real Property in the United States.* Special Report of the State Tax Commission, No. 10. Albany, N.Y.: J. B. Lyon Company, 1936.

Walker, Mabel. *The Potentialities of Local Non-property Taxes as Fiscal Instruments in New York State.* Fiscal Policy for Public Education in New York State, Staff Study No. 8. Albany: New York State Educational Conference Board and Public Education Association of New York City, 1948.

CHAPTER 25

FINANCING RURAL SCHOOLS

Financial support of reasonably dependable amount and regularity is essential to the maintenance of public schools. Since the public schools of the United States are largely controlled and supported by school districts or other local units of government, the differences in taxpaying ability of the many communities and areas of the several states result in corresponding differences in local ability to pay for schools.

In brief, the problems of financing rural schools arise from inadequate income, proportionately large numbers of children, antiquated school administrative organizations, inadequate state and Federal contributions to school support, and outmoded and inequitable methods of distributing state funds to local school systems.

In this chapter it is proposed to examine briefly the development of the financing of public schools, the variations among the states and local units of government in economic ability to support schools, the need for state support of schools, sources of financial support of schools, the principles and methods of distributing state school funds, the need for Federal participation in the financing of public schools and how that participation should be conducted, and the probable future cost of public schools. Where possible, the influence of rurality on conditions and problems will be emphasized.

Development of Public School Finance. The public school system of our country has come to what it is through a process of evolution, a concomitant of a democratic society developing out of pioneer conditions. It grew from the cooperative efforts of neighbors. Accordingly, its financial support was local in its origin.[1]

The Colonial and Early National Period. Schools in the colonies were private affairs and privately supported. They were not universal or free and not held in high esteem. In some instances lotteries were a legal means of raising money for schools. In some states the children of the poor were taught in publicly supported "pauper schools."

---

[1] For more complete information on the next three subsections see Mort, Paul R., and Reusser, Walter C. *Public School Finance.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941, pp. 3–23.

The Nineteenth-century Period. The universal, free, tax-supported public school system was a product of the first half of the nineteenth century. It was during this period that schools changed largely from church to state control and support.

At first the means of supporting schools in New England were "rate bills," or a per capita tax on parents who sent their children to school. From time to time other sources of revenue were devised: the proceeds of land endowments, direct appropriations, license taxes on certain trades or businesses, fines and penalties, and lotteries. The idea of a compulsory general property tax levied on everybody alike gained slow, but finally universal, acceptance.

Then, beginning with the Federal land grants to Ohio in 1802 for the support of schools, a rapid expansion of publicly supported schools ensued. When it was finally seen that the income from the funds accumulated from the sale of public lands granted for school purposes would not adequately support schools, state-wide property taxes and compulsory levies of local property taxes were advocated and adopted.

The struggle for compulsory tax support of schools did not take place uniformly among the states. Cubberley has summarized the developments as follows:[1]

> 1. Permission granted to communities desiring to organize a school taxing district, and to tax for school support the property of those consenting and residing therein.
> 2. Taxation of all property in the districts permitted.
> 3. State aid to such districts, at first from the income of permanent endowment funds, and later from the proceeds of small state appropriation, or a state, or a county tax.
> 4. Compulsory local taxation to supplement the state or county grant.

The Twentieth-century Period. The present period of development of public schools began approximately with the twentieth century. By the beginning of this period the idea that education should be free and available to all children had become widely accepted. Although the concept that education is a state function had been firmly established by court decisions interpreting the Tenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and although it had been settled that the power of the states through their legislatures with respect to the establishment and support of public schools is plenary within the limits set by their respective constitutions, the responsibility for supporting schools and the control of them had been left largely to local units of government. Up to 1940 fully 70 per cent or more of school support came from local taxes. As late as 1948 almost 60 per cent came from such sources.

---

[1] Cubberley, Ellwood P. *Public Education in the United States.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919, p. 131.

The first half of the century witnessed a most phenomenal growth in public school attendance and costs. The number of pupils enrolled increased by more than 50 per cent; high school enrollments doubled each decade from 1900 to 1930; expenditures increased from less than a quarter of a billion dollars in 1900 to over 4.3 billion dollars in 1948; and the expense per pupil in average daily attendance increased from $20 to $145.[1]

This rapid expansion of the public school system took place under two noteworthy conditions: (1) a highly decentralized system of organization and control in the form of school districts, of which there were about 127,000 in 1930; and (2) financial support by property taxes, most of which came from the local districts. These conditions resulted in great inequalities of funds for the support of schools and in overburdening general property with taxes. Although the amounts of state funds for schools increased in several states, the percentage of funds from state sources actually declined in the nation as a whole up to 1930. However, by 1946 the per cent of school funds from state sources was about twice as great as in 1900.[2]

The economic depression of the early 1930's brought disaster to thousands of school districts. By 1933–1934 the schools attended by about one-eighth of the pupils in the United States did not have sufficient funds, even after curtailing expenses, to run a normal term. The Federal government placed over 100,000 rural teachers technically on relief and paid them from relief appropriations to keep the schools open.[3] From 1930 to 1934 school expenditures decreased 25.8 per cent. Property assessments declined and taxes became delinquent.[4] Regardless of the fact that many states adopted new sources of revenue and new plans of equalization, rural school expenditure did not recover their 1930 level until well after 1944.

During the 1930's and continuing to the present, certain notable trends in school finance took place:[1] (1) shift of a considerable amount of the burden of school support from real estate, particularly farm real estate, to other tax sources, especially personal and corporate income taxes, business and privilege taxes, and general and special sales taxes; (2) collection of an ever-increasing portion of tax revenues by the state, and a corresponding decline in the relative importance of local units as taxing agencies; (3) extension of the principle of equalization in the distribution of state funds; (4) distribution of state funds in such a way as to encourage certain desired practices, especially in the matter of school administration; and (5) assumption by the state of a larger per cent of school costs, going from 15.8 per cent in 1930 to 29.2 per cent in 1940 and to 39.8 per cent in 1948.[2]

---

[1] U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistical Summary of Education, 1944–1946." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States.* Washington, D.C., 1949, p. 18. See also "Statistical Summary of Education, 1939–1940," p. 26; "State School Systems: Statistical Summary for 1947–1948." Circular No. 270. March, 1950, p. 4.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] Dawson, Howard A. *The Financial Needs of Rural and Small Independent School Districts, 1934–35.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior) (mimeographed).

[4] U.S. Office of Education (Department of the Interior). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1932–1934." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1932–1934.* Bulletin 1935, No. 2. Washington, D.C., 1936, p. 46.

Variations in School Support. One of the outstanding characteristics of the public school system in the United States is inequality among the states and their school subdivisions with respect to educational load, the financial ability and effort to support schools, and expenditures for school purposes. Since schools are supported almost entirely by the states and their school districts, it is important to know the extent and causes of these inequalities. Such information is basic to a knowledge of what needs to be done about the amounts and methods of Federal and state financing of public schools.

Variations in Economic Ability. The fundamental data concerning the differences among the states and between farm and nonfarm people have been fully presented in Chapter 3. It has been shown that, in general, the states that have the highest proportion of children five to seventeen years old in their population have the smallest amount of income per child; and that farm people have a far greater number of school-age children per 1,000 total population than nonfarm people have, and a much higher proportion of the nation's children than of its income. Most of the significant inequalities in educational burdens and ability are associated with rural-urban differences. It is a fact that children and income are concentrated in different places.

Variations in Effort and Expenditures. Since there are such marked differences among the states in educational load and in ability to support schools, the question arises as to whether there are corresponding differences in effort to support schools and in the amount of school funds available for expenditure. The data as to effort (measured by the per cent of income spent for schools), expenditures, and income per child of school age are shown in Table 50. Recent data for rural and urban schools separately are not available. For practical purposes, however, the relationships between the rurality of the states and effort and school expenditures can be seen by ranking the states according to the per cent of rural population in each, and comparing that rank with the rank in effort and expenditures. Table 50 is arranged in that way.

---

[1] Research Division National Education Association. "Progress in Rural Education." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVIII, September, 1940, pp. 146–147.

[2] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 224.

In general the states with a *high* proportion of rural population have low income per person of school age, make relatively high effort to raise money for schools, but have relatively low expenditures per pupil; whereas the states with a relatively *low* proportion of rural population have high income per person of school age, make relatively small effort in raising school funds, but have high expenditures per pupil. There are a few notable exceptions among the states, but this generalization is supported by the following facts:

1. Of the 24 states above the national median per cent of rural population, 19 fall below the median income per child; 16 equal or exceed the median effort to support schools; and 18 fall below the median expenditure per pupil.
2. Of the 24 states that fall below the national median in per cent of rural population, 18 rank above the median income per child; 16 rank below the median effort to support schools; and 17 rank above the median expenditure per pupil. Of the 6 that make less than median effort to support schools, only 1 falls significantly below the national median expenditure per pupil.

Variations within the States. Inasmuch as in most of the states a large share of school funds come from local property taxes and schools are organized on the basis of numerous local school districts that serve as local taxing units, it is to be expected that there would be large differences in taxable wealth and expenditures per school child.

Just how great the differences among districts within various states actually are has been shown by comparing the expense per pupil in average daily attendance in rural elementary, rural 12-grade, and city 12-grade districts in states for which data were available.[1] Illustrative data are shown in Table 51. The lowest difference was among city 12-grade districts in Washington with expenditures of $200 and $265 for the low and high districts respectively. On the other hand, the expenditures in low and high elementary school districts in Kansas were $112 and $735 respectively.

Effect of Rurality on Variations in School Expenditures. Low expenditures per pupil and low average annual salary per teacher are generally associated with the proportion of rural population among the states. It is generally true that the higher the per cent of rural population, the lower

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 180.

TABLE 50. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PER CENT OF RURAL POPULATION AND THE EFFORT TO SUPPORT PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THE AMOUNT ACTUALLY SPENT PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, UNITED STATES, BY STATES, 1947–1948

States[a]	School revenue as per cent of income[b]		Current expense per pupil[c]		Income per person 5–17[d]		Per cent of rural population[e]	
	Per cent	Rank	Amount	Rank	Amount	Rank	Per cent	Rank
United States	2.3[f]	....	$178.71[f]	..	$ 6,436[g]	..	60.3[h]	
Miss	2.3	23.5	66.54	48	2,374	48	50.7	1
N.Dak	1.9	36.5	159.98	33	6,305	22	79.4	2
Ark	2.3	23.5	85.32	46	2,716	47	77.8	3
S.C	2.6	14	110.09	43	2,783	46	75.5	4
S.Dak	2.9	6.5	209.70	11	5,447	29	75.4	5
N.C	2.6	14	110.40	42	3,395	43	72.7	6
W. Va	2.8	8.5	137.56	38	3,927	38	71.9	7
Ky	2.2	27.5	118.34	41	3,357	44	70.2	8
Ala	2.5	17.5	99.06	45	3,136	45	69.3	9
N. Mex	3.6	1	169.50	28	3,716	40	66.8	10
Idaho	2.7	10.5	153,67	35	5,416	31	66.3	11
Vt	2.1	31	169.66	27	5,551	28	65.7	12
Ga	2.1	31	80.79	47	3,438	42	65.6	13
Ariz	3.2	2	211.19	10	4,651	35	65.2	14
Tenn	2.4	19.5	105.69	44	3,783	39	64.8	15
Va	2.0	34.5	119.42	40	4,419	36	64.7	16
Wyo	2.0	34.5	203.28	13	6,724	19	62.7	17
Okla	2.7	10.5	143.70	37	3,962	37	62.4	18
Mont	3.1	3.5	255.11	2	6,846	16	62.2	19
Nebr	1.8	39.5	178.85	24	6,088	24	60.9	20
Nev	2.3	23.5	219.20	8	10,240	2	60.7	21
Maine	1.8	39.5	129.00	39	5,280	32	59.5	22
La	2.6	14	160.81	32	3,697	41	58.5	23
Kans	2.3	23.5	197.38	17	6,731	18	63.2	24
Iowa	3.0	5	174.57	26	5,643	27	57.3	25
Tex	2.8	8.5	197.00	18	4,986	33	54.6	26
Oreg	2.6	14	216.79	9	6,865	15	51.2	27
Minn	2.5	17.5	204.07	12	5,907	26	50.2	28
Mo	2.1	31	152.75	36	6,162	23	48.2	29
Del	1.7	43.5	201.72	14	8,553	8	47.7	30
Colo	2.3	23.5	191.06	20	6,438	17	47.4	31
Wash	2.6	14	229.30	4	7,308	11	46.9	32
Wis	1.7	43.5	161.22	31	6,527	20	46.5	33
Ind	2.4	19.5	194.59	19	6,452	21	44.9	34.5
Fla	2.9	6.5	165.40	29	5,435	30	44.9	34.5
Utah	3.1	3.5	180.27	21	4,801	34	44.5	36
N.H	1.9	36.5	163.19	30	6,069	25	42.4	37
Md	2.1	31	178.56	25	7,298	12	40.7	38
Mich	2.3	23.5	200.00	15	6,929	14	34.5	39.5
Pa	1.7	43.5	155.84	34	7,127	13	34.5	39.5
Ohio	1.8	39.5	178.99	23	7,555	10	33.2	41
Conn	1.5	46.5	220.92	6	9,789	3	32.2	42
Calif	2.1	31	223.45	5	9,556	4	29.0	43
Ill	1.4	48	179.36	22	9,102	5	26.4	44
N.J	2.2	27.5	260.80	1	8,776	7	18.4	45
N.Y	1.8	39.5	250.75	3	10,742	1	17.2	46
Mass	1.5	46.5	197.45	16	8,162	9	10.6	47
R.I	1.7	43.5	220.65	7	8,782	6	8.4	48

[a] The states are ranked according to the per cent of rural population in 1940.

[b] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems*. Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 177.

[c] *Ibid.*, p. 178.

[d] *Ibid.*, p. 176.

[e] 1940 census data.

[f] Median of the states.

[g] Mean of United States.

[h] Median of the states. Mean is 43.5.

TABLE 51. LOW AND HIGH DISTRICTS IN CURRENT EXPENSE PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, SELECTED STATES, 1947–1948[a]

Type of district	Item	Arkansas	Connecticut	Kansas	Louisiana	Washington
	Rural elementary school					
Low	No. of pupils	45	296	664	2,450	29
	Expense per pupil	$ 26	$115	$112	$66	$138
High	No. of pupils	2,800	178	40	1,133	24
	Expense per pupil	$140	$356	$735	$200	$646
	Rural 12-grade school					
Low	No. of pupils	86	373	518	2,341	891
	Expense per pupil	$42	$154	$119	$63	$216
High	No. of pupils	786	101	560	1,133	108
	Expense per pupil	$110	$264	$326	$245	$566
	City 12-grade school					
Low	No. of pupils	1,265	17,391	914	6,203	6,863
	Expense per pupil	$77	$161	$88	$133	$200
High	No. of pupils	12,487	17,491	196	46,067	8,006
	Expense per pupil	$143	$256	$248	$188	$265

[a] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, p. 180. Current expense per pupil here does not include interest.

the expenditure per pupil and the lower the salary per teacher (see Table 52). Some states are notable exceptions to this generalization, especially in times of relatively high agricultural income, as in the sparsely settled Great Plains states.

Because of the improved income status of farmers since the beginning of the Second World War, the differences between rural and urban areas in expenditures for schools have become considerably less than formerly. In 1937–1938 the expense per pupil in the 12 least rural states was more than twice as great as in the 12 most rural states; a decade later it was only 1.8 times as great. For the average annual salary per teacher the difference in 1937–1938 was 2 to 1 in favor of urban teachers; a decade later the differ-

Table 52. Current Expense per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance and the Average Annual Salary of Teachers in 1937–1938 and 1947–1948[a] as Related to the Proportion of Rural Population, United States[b]

	48 states arranged according to per cent of rural population and separated into four groups of 12 states each[c]				
	Highest 12 states (median)	Second 12 states (median)	Third 12 states (median)	Lowest 12 states (median)	United States (median)
Per cent rural population	72.3	63.2	47.5	30.6	60.3
Expense per pupil, 1937–1938[c]	$53	$71	$88	$111	$83
Adjusted by consumers' price index[d]	52	68	86	108	81
Current expense per pupil, 1947–1948[c]	$128	$170	$193	$199	$179
Adjusted by consumers' price index[d]	76	101	115	118	106
Av. annual salary of teachers, 1937–1938[c]	$794	$943	$1,290	$1,682	$1,093
Adjusted by consumers' price index[d]	778	925	1,266	1,651	1,073
Av. annual salary of teachers, 1947–1948[c]	$2,026	$2,176	$2,618	$3,014	$2,440
Adjusted by consumers' price index[d]	1,202	1,291	1,554	1,789	1,448
Per cent of increase in expense per pupil, 1937–1938 to 1947–1948[c]	144	141	119	80	116
Adjusted by consumers' price index[d]	49	46	33	9	30
Per cent of increase in av. salary of teachers 1937–1938 to 1947–1948[c]	155	131	103	67	122
Adjusted by consumers' index of prices[d]	55	29	23	8	35

---

[a] Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949, pp. 178, 207.

[b] U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Characteristics of the Population.* Sixteenth Census of the United States. Washington, D.C., 1940, Vol. II, Parts 1–7.

[c] There are no separate data for rural and urban school expenditures since 1939–1940. Hence, an indirect method of setting approximate relationships between rurality and school expenditures has been used. The states were ranked according to per cent of rural population in 1940 and then divided into four groups of 12 state each. For each group of states the median per cent (midpoint between the sixth and seventh states in each group) of rural population, the median current expense per pupil in average daily attendance, and the median average annual salary per teacher were found for the year indicated.

[d] The indexes are based on the average of 1935–1939, which is placed as 100. 1937–1938 = 101.9; 1947–1948 = 168.5. See Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 25.

ence was only 1.55 to 1.00. This is another way of pointing to the fact that during the decade the greatest improvements in expenditures per pupil and salary per teacher occurred in the most rural states.

It should be noted that in terms of the purchasing power of the dollar the increases in expenditures and salaries are not as great as the dollar amounts indicate. A reference to Table 52 will amply demonstrate the point. It is quite significant, however, that during the decade 1937–1948 in terms of purchasing power the average salary per teacher in the 12 *least* rural states increased only 8 per cent, as compared to 55 per cent in the 12 *most* rural states.

Supplementary to the facts just cited, it is desirable to point out that it is not true that all rural schools have less money per pupil than all urban schools. In the year 1939–1940 (the last year for which data are available) the average annual expenditures per pupil in rural schools exceeded those in urban schools in 13 states.[1] It is also true that there are large variations in the amount of funds per pupil among both rural and urban schools, but usually the inequalities among rural schools and between rural and urban schools as classes exceed those among urban schools.

Implications of These Variations. The great differences among the states and their school districts in educational load, income and taxpaying ability, effort to support schools, and expenditures for schools are positive evidence that an acceptable degree of equality of educational opportunity cannot be expected any more under a system of support that depends largely upon local property taxes than could be expected if each family were left to pay for the education of its own children.

It is a well-established fact that the inequalities of educational opportunity that have long existed in the several states and within each of them are such as to demand statesmanlike action by each of the states and by the Federal government. For millions of children educational opportunity is determined by the affluence or poverty of the communities where they live. In communities and states where the proportionate number of children in the population is smallest, the economic resources are greatest, cultural opportunities in home and community are the greatest, effort to support schools is the least, and educational opportunities are the most adequate. In other communities, most frequently rural, where the proportionate number of children in the population is greatest, just the opposite conditions are found.

---

[1] Arizona, Idaho, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, Nevada, New Mexico, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, and Wyoming. U.S. Office of Education (Federal Security Agency). "Statistics of State School Systems, 1939–1940 and 1941–1942." *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938–1940 and 1940–1942.* Washington, D.C., 1944, p. 131.

Professor Newton Edwards has stated the need for a broader base than local property taxes for the support of schools thus:

> Education can be made a force to equalize the condition of men. It is no less true that it may be a force to create class, race and sectional distinctions. . . . The evidence indicates clearly that the schools of the United States, which have hitherto been regarded as the bulwark of democracy, may in fact become an instrument for creating those very inequalities they were designed to prevent.[1]

State support of public schools on a scale more extensive than most states have yet undertaken is a necessity to a proper reduction of inequalities within the states. But after that is done it will still be necessary for the Federal government to aid. The facts clearly

> . . . indicate that no sound plan of local or state taxation can be devised and instituted that will support in every local community a school system that meets minimum acceptable standards. Unless the federal government participates in the financial support of schools and related services, several million children in the United States will continue to be largely denied the educational opportunities that should be regarded as their birthright.[2]

Sources of School Support. In obtaining funds to pay for public schools two matters are of primary importance: the unit of government that raises the revenue, and the tax sources used. As has been pointed out previously, our public schools are state agencies conducted and, in a majority of the states, largely supported by local units of school administration; but the Federal government has for nearly a century and a half given financial assistance to the states for school support. The sources of revenue used by the local, state, and national governments has much to do not only with the adequacy of the amount of school funds, but also with the equity of the burden of paying taxes for school support.

Local, State, and Federal Contributions. Total tax revenues for the support of public elementary and secondary schools in 1947–1948 came from governmental units as follows: local districts, 53.2 per cent; counties, 5.7 per cent; states, 39.8 per cent; and Federal, 1.3 per cent. In the 12 states that have some form of county unit of school administration, the county-wide tax, essentially local support, furnished an average of about 30 per cent of the school funds. Ten other states used county-wide taxes to aid the local districts, ranging from 4.7 per cent in Wisconsin to 39.4 per cent in Montana.[3]

For the nation as a whole, from 1937 to 1948, the proportion of the funds coming from the state (including Federal) increased from 30.8 per cent to 41.1 per cent and the proportion from local sources decreased accordingly, *i.e.*, from 69.2 to 58.9 per cent.[1]

---

[1] Edwards, Newton. *Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1937, pp. 151–152.

[2] Advisory Committee on Education. *The Report of the Committee.* Washington, D.C., 1938, p. 47.

[3] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 224, Table 48.

The shift toward increased state support has accomplished two purposes. It has relieved the general property taxes which have been regarded as overburdened; and it has permitted the establishment of plans intended to bring about a greater degree of equalization of educational opportunities.

The range among the states in the per cent of school support coming from local sources is very great, being from 10.9 per cent in Delaware to 95.1 per cent in Nebraska. Of course just the reverse percentages would be applicable to state sources.[1] In 1947–1948 the 12 states that had the highest per cents of rural population as a general rule derived a higher per cent of their school funds from state sources than did the 12 states with the lowest per cents of rural population, the per cents being 61.2 and 29.1, respectively.[2]

Sources of Revenue for Schools. Schools are supported from many sources of taxation. Since over 60 per cent of school revenues still come from general property taxes, the problems concerning such taxes are of major importance to school finance. These problems are given full consideration in Chapter 24. It is perhaps well to point out here that the property tax as a source of state revenue has disappeared in most states. Only nine states were using it in 1947–1948, and of those states only three used it to any appreciable extent as measured by the per cent of total school revenues accruing from that source—Louisiana, 7.3 per cent; Tennessee, 1.9 per cent; and Utah, 23.2 per cent.[3]

State revenues are now raised largely by the so-called "newer" types of taxes such as taxes on individual and corporate incomes, sales, motor vehicles and fuel, alcoholic beverages, inheritances and gifts, tobacco, business licenses and privileges, and numerous lesser sources. Most of the state taxes are closely associated with business activity. They were very productive during wartime prosperity and have continued to produce high yields during the postwar inflationary period.[4]

There are great differences in the extent to which the various states depend upon the "newer" taxes (see Table 53). The per capita collection of all state taxes is 2.8 times as much in the highest state as in the lowest. The differences in the per cent of total tax collection raised from the various sources are of still greater proportions. For example, the per cent derived from a tax on incomes in the highest state is sixty-five times as great as in the lowest state.

---

[1] *Ibid.*

[2] *Ibid.* Medians for each group of 12 states calculated.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 225, Table 49. Also, Research Division, National Education Association. "State Legislation Affecting School Revenues, 1944–1948." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, October, 1949, p. 106.

[4] Research Division, National Education Association. "Statistics of State Progress in Public Education." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXV, December, 1947, pp. 143–147. Also, Research Division, National Education Association. "State Legislation Affecting School Revenues, 1944–1948." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, October, 1949, p. 79 and pp. 122–123.

TABLE 53. PROPORTIONS OF STATE-TAX COLLECTIONS FROM CERTAIN SOURCES, 1947[a]

Source	Number of states using the tax	Per cent of total tax collections			Ratio highest to lowest
		United States average	Lowest for any state	Highest for any state	
Alcoholic beverages	48	7.1	1.3	18.8	14.5
Income	35	13.0	0.7[b]	45.4	64.9
Motor vehicles and fuel	48	24.6	13.9	51.9	3.7
Unemployment compensation	48	14.3	3.0	32.8	10.9
General sales	24[c]	17.4	1.2[d]	53.1	44.3
Tobacco	32[b]	3.6	0.1[d]	9.2	92.0
All other sources	48	20.0	7.2	46.3	6.4
All sources per capita	..	$48.66	$29.54	$84.05	2.8

[a] Research Division, National Education Association. "Statistics of State Progress in Public Education." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXV, December, 1947, p. 146.

[b] Research Division, National Education Association. "State Legislation Affecting School Revenues, 1944–1948." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, October, 1949, p. 96. In 1948 a total of 38 states had such taxes.

[c] U.S. Treasury, Division of Tax Research. One state has dropped the tax and 5 others have adopted the tax since 1947, making a total of 28 in 1949.

[d] Lowest having this type of tax.

Concerning income taxes, the rates applicable to various classes of income, the upper brackets at which the rates become static, and the exemptions are so different that the fact that a state has an income tax offers no evidence as to the effort it is making to support public necessities such as schools. A citizen in Oregon must pay 2 per cent on the first $500 of net income and 8 per cent on all over $8,000 with an exemption of only $1,800 if he has a wife and one child; but if he lives in California he would pay only 1 per cent on the first $10,000 of net income with an exemption of $4,900. It is true that California has a 2½ per cent retail sales tax and Oregon none, but it is doubtful that the sales tax on the persons having over $4,000 income, to say the least, could possibly make up the difference in burdens.[1]

---

[1] U.S. Treasury, Division of Tax Research, as published in *World Almanac*, New York: New York World-Telegram and Sun, 1950, pp. 670–672.

Some comments about sales taxes and taxes on tobacco products are in order. The rates on retail and general sales taxes range from 1 to 3 per cent, which is a considerable variation when it is seen that 1 per cent is only half of 2 per cent and one-third of 3 per cent. Mississippi and New Mexico place a tax on gross receipts at various rates depending on the type of business. Indiana has a gross income tax which varies from ¼ of 1 per cent to 1 per cent, and West Virginia has both a retail sales tax at 2 per cent and a gross income tax that varies from ½ of 1 per cent to 1 per cent for different businesses.[1] In 1948 taxes on cigarettes and other tobacco products were in force in 38 states.[2] Interestingly enough, these tobacco taxes have usually been levied for the purpose of increasing the revenues for schools. The proceeds are often of no mean proportions, depending, of course, upon the rates levied.

A study of the state systems of taxation leads to the unavoidable conclusion that most states have followed expediency rather than principles in the types of taxes and the rates imposed. There is much evidence that any or all of the states could greatly increase their revenues without undue burdens.

Some Guiding Principles. From the facts that have been presented, and on the basis of the acceptance of the idea that public education is a public necessity that should be free and equally available to all children and youth in both times of economic adversity and periods of prosperity, certain basic principles of taxation relative to the financing of public schools can be stated:

1. Some part of the cost of public schools should be supported by local taxes, which almost without exception should and must be general property taxes. There is no good reason why taxes on general property should not be levied. The movement to relieve general property from tax burdens has often been carried to absurd extremes. The part of the cost of schools that should be borne by local taxes in most states should probably range between 40 and 60 per cent. This statement, however, does not mean that every local subdivision of the state should provide such per cents of the cost of schools. In some subdivisions the per cent should be much higher and in others much lower, depending upon taxpaying ability.
2. The state should make ample provision for the equalization of assessments of property for tax purposes.
3. Tax-limitation laws should be avoided. They restrict local initiative and lower the standard of schools. A vote of the people on local tax levies for schools beyond reasonable rates authorized or required by state law is an ample safeguard against exorbitant rates.
4. State revenues should be sufficient to support the state's share of the educational program. The program needed and desired should determine the cost within reasonable limits of the state's economic ability to raise revenues for all necessary public

---

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 673.

[2] Research Division, *op. cit.*, pp. 96–97.

services. The amount of revenue actually raised should not determine the scope and quality of the school program as it most often is permitted to do. There is no evidence that any state has attained its maximum effort to support schools.

5. The amount of revenue available for schools should be stable and dependable.

6. The tax program of the state should be based upon a diversity of taxes. Such a plan not only is likely to be more equitable with respect to the burdens of all taxpayers, but it will strengthen the stability and dependability of the amount of revenue. Large dependence upon any one tax source is likely to result in wide fluctuations in the amount of revenues.

7. Flexibility in the rates of taxation is a desirable but not widely used plan of taxation. Rates should be adjusted up or down in accordance with economic conditions and the need for stabilizing the amount of revenue.

The Distribution of State School Funds. The states have experimented with almost all imaginable plans of distributing state school funds to their school subdivisions. A description and evaluation of some of the major types of plans will help to show what plans of state financing of schools are really needed.

Flat Grants for General Purposes. One of the earliest methods of apportioning state school funds was payment to school subdivisions on the basis of the school census. Various modifications of that method have been made by using school enrollments, average enrollments, average daily attendance, aggregate days of attendance, the number of teachers employed, and the number of classroom units. All these methods involve the idea of a per capita allotment. All are deficient in that they do not take into consideration the ability of the school districts to support schools. The poor districts have no assurance of adequate funds, while the wealthy districts may have enough with little effort. Of these measures those having to do with attendance are much more desirable, because they are related to the number of pupils actually in school and put a premium on keeping children in school.

Special Aid and Stimulation Funds. Early in the twentieth century the idea was developed that state funds should be used to induce localities to undertake improvements of their schools that they might otherwise not attempt, not only because they were not financially able to pay for the improvements but also because they might not think enough of them to want them. This form of aid usually involved some degree of matching local funds with state funds, or the payment of certain stipulated sums by the state when the district had raised certain amounts or levied certain tax rates. It also usually resulted in the earmarking of certain aspects of the school program for special consideration.

Special aid was used for a variety of programs, among which were better trained teachers, higher salaries to teachers, school libraries, the improvement of school buildings, the consolidation of schools, tuition of pupils having to attend high school outside of their own districts, and vocational education.

There is no doubt that many of these plans of aid resulted in the improvement of school programs. The usual difficulty has been that they have not reached the places in greatest need. The offers of funds have been too often like "trying to get blood out of a turnip." For example, for some years the state of Missouri paid $200 per year for the salary of each teacher for whom the district paid $1,000. Obviously such an offer was of no value to the districts that were unable to pay the $1,000.

These special grants for the support of selected aspects or phases of the school program are subject to the same criticism as other flat grants. Then, too, they tend to build unbalanced programs through overemphasis on some phases and the neglect of others, and they often tend to result in undesirable forms of state control which might be avoided through a properly developed system of aid, chiefly involving general-purpose funds.

State Equalizing Funds. In the early 1920's the idea that it is the function of the state to guarantee the funds necessary to support the minimum acceptable program of educational opportunities throughout the state was fully developed. The heart of the idea was that there should be a floor under the standards of the public school program. Usually it was assumed that the minimum standard could be measured adequately by an amount of money per pupil, or by some other accepted unit that experience had demonstrated to be adequate. The amount of money was usually determined by the expenditures customarily made in the state affected.[1]

Large-fund plans. It is possible that the state could achieve the financing of the established minimum of educational opportunity by paying its entire cost. That procedure is exactly the one that was adopted by Delaware in 1921. In the early 1930's North Carolina did likewise. In 1935 New Mexico changed from a system of about 85 per cent local support to about 85 per cent state support. Other states, California in particular, pay the entire cost of the minimum program from state funds, but none has gone so far away from dependence on local funds as these three states. This plan of equalization is sometimes referred to as "the large-fund plan" because relatively large sums are required to guarantee the minimum program. It should be pointed out that all the flat-grant, general-purpose grants, such as school funds apportioned on the school census, are based on the assumptions underlying the large-fund plan. It happens, however, that such funds rarely have been sufficiently large to accomplish their objective.

Small-fund plans. "Equalization" used in a technical sense means a special type of equalization sometimes referred to as "the small-fund plan," so called because a relatively small fund can guarantee the minimum program by supplementing local funds in the districts whose resources at a specified tax rate are not sufficient to pay for the established standard. Under this plan the poor districts receive much higher per cents of their funds from the state than do the richer districts.

---

[1] Mort and Reusser, *op. cit.*, pp. 380–382.

The general outline of the equalization plan is relatively simple, but a considerable amount of technical information is needed to make it work. The plan is as follows:[1]

1. A local school tax in support of the satisfactory minimum offering is required in each district at a rate which will provide the necessary funds for that purpose in the richest district or class of districts.
2. This richest district, or class of districts, will support all, or nearly all, the minimum program by means of a local tax.
3. All other districts are required to levy a local tax at the same rate and apply the proceeds toward the costs of schools.
4. For this class of districts the difference between what the uniform tax will raise and the amount needed to pay for the minimum program will be paid by the state.
5. All districts should then be left free to raise additional funds for schools by local taxes if they desire to exceed the minimum program.

This plan of apportionment is sometimes used for the support of selected phases of the program, such as teachers' salaries, rather than the support of the program as an entirety. Such special-purpose equalizing funds involve the same difficulties as other special-purpose funds, but may have considerable merit for capital outlay and pupil transportation.

In 1947–1948 this type of program was used to some extent by exactly half the states. They distributed from 20 per cent to more than 90 per cent of their state school funds according to some type of reasonably comprehensive equalization program. Eight states distributed over 80 per cent of their state aid on this plan.[2]

Combination plans. It is possible, of course, to combine the large-fund and the small-fund plans of distributing school funds, and that is what has been done in some states. Under this plan Indiana sets a minimum program in terms of a given amount of money per classroom unit and the state pays that entire amount. The law then sets a higher minimum cost per classroom unit and requires a uniform local tax to be levied by all districts. The difference between what the local tax produces plus the state allotment for the first minimum program and what is needed to meet the second minimum is the amount of the equalization allotment from the state.[3]

---

[1] *Ibid.*, pp. 383–384.

[2] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, pp. 129–130.

[3] Research Division, National Education Association. "Indiana," rev. ed. *State School Finance Systems.* Series 1—State Systems: Elementary and Secondary Schools. Washington, D.C., November, 1947.

Special Problems in Equalization. There are two major problems involved in setting up equalization plans in school finance: (1) the measurement of educational load, and (2) the measurement of local taxpaying ability. The first of these measures is concerned with the number of pupils to be educated; the second with the equalization of assessments (previously discussed in Chapter 24).

The measurement of educational load involves the determination of the number of teaching units or classroom units, each composed of a number of pupils. Just what number of pupils should constitute a classroom unit is not entirely certain, but the trend seems to be toward 25 pupils in average daily attendance for both elementary schools and high schools. In the past it has been, and to a decreasing extent still is, the prevailing practice to assign a larger number of pupils per classroom unit in elementary schools than in high schools. In 1930 the ratio was 1.7 to 1; recent studies indicate 1.33 to 1. There is no evident reason for having any difference.[1]

The size of the school is an important factor in determining the number of classroom units needed. This factor is especially important in the case of one-teacher schools and small high schools, both of which are almost exclusively rural institutions. How this problem is handled is shown by the equalization aid law of New York prior to 1949: the one-teacher schools were always 1-unit; schools enrolling 135 pupils or fewer were allowed 2 teaching units for the first 40 pupils and one additional unit for each 32 additional pupils; schools enrolling more than 135 pupils were allowed 1 teaching unit for each 27 pupils in average daily attendence.[2] Recently other states have undertaken to allow for small schools or for transportation by introducing a sparsity-of-population factor into the formula for determining the number of teaching units.[3]

Financing a Complete Program. The state's plan of school finance should be comprehensive, that is, it should make provision for all essential school services through full state support of the defined foundation program, or by an equalization fund that supplements local resources according to need.

In setting up a program of state school finance or in judging one in operation it is essential that a full inventory be made of what goes into a comprehensive program. It will generally be accepted that the program will include instruction for the kindergarten through grade 12 as the minimum. Some states, as, for example, California and Washington, provide for instruction through grade 14, or the junior college. The comprehensive program will also include paying for school buildings and equipment, pupil transportation, educational opportunities for exceptional children, and supervisory and administrative services through a large school district or an intermediate administrative unit.[1]

---

[1] Mort, Paul R. *State Support of Education.* National Survey of School Finance. Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1933, pp. 107–108. Norton, John K., and Lawler, Eugene S. *An Inventory of Public School Expenditures in the United States.* Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1944, Vol. II, p. 399 (mimeographed).

[2] New York Education Law (recodified), Article 73, Section 3603, subdivision 2, as amended by Laws 1947. Chapter 796.

[3] Chase and Morphet, *op. cit.*, p. 134.

Experience in Federal Aid. The Federal government has had long experience in granting funds to the states for educational purposes, but no fixed or clearly identifiable policy except to leave the control of schools and most of their support to the states. The grants of public lands to the states for school purposes over a period of nearly a hundred years, grants of funds for the support of the land-grant colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts since 1862, grants to the states for aid to vocational education since 1917, certain expenditures during the depression in aid of education (especially aid for school buildings through the public works program) and expenditures for education necessary to the defense program during the Second World War are examples of Federal aid to education.

In 1941–1942 Federal expenditures for education amounted to 316 million dollars; in 1945–1946, to 175 million dollars. But with all these expenditures the Federal government has avoided facing the issue of the need for financial aid for public general elementary and secondary education.

Guiding Principles for Federal Aid for Education. As can be readily seen from the foregoing paragraphs, it is not a question of having or not having Federal aid for education. The question is, "For what purposes and how should aid be granted?" It is now well accepted, all but unanimously, by students and authorities in education, political science, and public finance, that Federal aid for education is necessary, and it is generally agreed that the following principles should guide the policy of granting such aid:

1. State control of education is desirable. In a country of such vast expanse as the United States it is desirable to maintain the decentralization of education in order to prevent the use of education for propaganda by any national party or other interest group. Furthermore, education is essentially a community enterprise and as such will best serve the purpose of a democratic society if a high degree of local autonomy in the control and management of schools is maintained. Federal legislation granting Federal aid should carry ample safeguards against Federal control of such matters as the curriculum and the selection of school personnel.
2. The funds appropriated by the Congress should be allotted to the states according to a mathematical formula written into the law, so that the amount of funds to be received by any state will not be subject to the discretion of any Federal official or agency.

[1] See Chap. 19 for the relationship between school finance and school district organization; Chap. 22 for state aid for pupil transportation; and Chap. 23 for state aid for school buildings.

3. The funds received by any state should be distributed among the local subdivisions of the state in accordance with state law enacted for that purpose.

4. The funds granted by the Federal government should be available for all types of expenditures necessary to the maintenance of a complete program of elementary and secondary schools.

5. In order to be eligible to receive Federal funds for schools, a state should provide an equitable distribution of funds among the separate races where separate schools are maintained and guarantee an acceptable minimum allotment of funds to every school in the state.

6. The Federal government should grant funds for the support of schools to all the states. Such a policy creates an interest of all the states in the matter of Federal relations to education and thereby acts as a safeguard against Federal control in any of the states.

7. Some Federal funds should be granted to all states in proportion to such uniform measure as the number of pupils attending school. Other funds should be granted to the states on an equalization basis, which calls for allotment in direct proportion to the number of children and in indirect proportion to the income of the people of the state. According to this method the lower the income of the people of a state, the greater the amount of the funds per pupil to be received from the Federal government.

8. Federal funds should be made available to the states only for free, tax-supported public schools. Private education is a private privilege and should be paid for by those who enjoy it; public education is a public necessity and should be paid for by the public.

Probable Cost of Adequate Schools. There is good reason to believe that the cost of an adequate program would be at least 8 billion dollars annually. The total should include about 6 billion dollars annually for current expenses of elementary and secondary schools, about 1.75 billion dollars annually for capital outlay for buildings, sites, and equipment, and over 100 million dollars annually for adult education in connection with secondary schools.

It is probable that at least 60 per cent of the additional funds needed to meet such a budget would be needed by the schools accommodating rural children. It also seems probable that about 50 per cent of the funds should come from state sources, about 20 per cent from the Federal government, and about 30 per cent from local taxes.

Such a budget would not be excessive, since it would not exceed 3.5 per cent of the national income of 224 billion dollars in 1950, an amount relatively no greater than that the American people spent in the depth of the depression of the 1930's when the national income fell below 50 billion dollars.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

1. Write a history of the development of school finance in your state. What sources of taxation have been used? What legislation has been permissive? What has been mandatory? What aspects of the educational program have been added through

state finance? What examples of the flat grants, stimulation and special-aid grants, and equalization grants are there?

2. Make an outline of the state school finance plan of your state. Describe how each fund is distributed to local units. Evaluate the plan as to adequacy of amount, completeness of the program, equalization, the encouragement or discouragement of school district reorganization, and the protection of local autonomy and local initiative.

3. How do expenditures for rural schools compare with those for urban schools in your county? Your state?

4. Make an itemized estimate of the cost of an adequate program of education for your community school district, county, or state.

5. For your state, find out how much of the increased cost of education since 1910 is due to (*a*) increased school attendance; (*b*) growth of high schools; (*c*) added services; (*d*) decreased purchasing power of money.

6. By preparing budgets for a school district largely rural and for an urban district comparable in size, find out what the relative school costs in the two districts should be.

7. On the basis of economic data, make the case for Federal aid for education. What bases are there for granting aid to all the states rather than to the most needy states?

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Advisory Committee on Education. *The Report of the Committee.* Washington, D.C., February, 1938.

American Association of School Administrators. *Schools in Small Communities.* Seventeenth Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1939. Chap. XIV, "Financing the Educational Process," pp. 334–352.

Burke, Arvid J. *Defensible Spending for Public Schools.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1943.

Butterworth, Julian E. *Principles of Rural School Administration.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926. Chap. XVI, "The Financial Needs of the Rural Schools," pp. 309–320. Chap. XVII, "An Evaluation of Methods of Meeting Financial Needs," pp. 323–348.

Chase, Francis S., and Morphet, Edgar L. *The Forty-eight State School Systems.* Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1949.

Cyr, Frank W., Burke, Arvid J., and Mort, Paul R. *Paying for Our Public Schools.* Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company, 1938.

Edwards, Newton, and Richey, Herman G. *The Extent of Equalization Secured through State School Funds.* Staff Study No. 6. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1938.

Mort, Paul R., and Cornell, Francis G. *American Schools in Transition.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Chap. VII, "How Tax Leeway and Wealth Affect Adaptability," pp. 139–166. Chap. VIII, "How Current Expenditure Affects Adaptability," 167–195.

Mort, Paul R., Lawler, Eugene S., *et al. Principles and Methods of Distributing Federal Aid for Education.* Staff Study No. 5. Washington, D.C.: The Advisory Committee on Education, 1939.

Mort, Paul R., and Reusser, Walter C. *Public School Finance.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941.

National Education Association, Department of Rural Education. *Rural Schools for Tomorrow.* Yearbook. Washington, D.C., 1945. Chap. IV, "Rural Income and Taxation as They Affect the Educational Program," pp. 54–65. Chap. XII, "Using State and Federal Funds to Equalize Educational Opportunities in Rural Areas," pp. 141–152.

Norton, John K., and Lawler, Eugene S. *Still Unfinished—Our Educational Obligation to America's Children.* Report of a Study Conducted by the Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948.

LIST OF VISUAL AIDS[1]

The films and filmstrips in the bibliography below are related generally to the problems of rural education dealt with in this book. Most of the items have been developed specifically in the field of rural education; others are illustrative of the educational philosophy accepted or developed in this book. These materials may be obtained from the producer or distributor listed, or in many cases from a local distributor, state university film library, or other regional sources. The chapter, or chapters, of the book to which the respective items listed are applicable are indicated, *e.g.*, Chap. 10, etc.

The materials are listed alphabetically in two categories: films and filmstrips. A key to the abbreviated names of distributors is found at the end of the bibliography along with their addresses.

All films, unless otherwise indicated, are 16 mm. Black and white is indicated by the symbol BW; and color, C. In filmstrip listings "fr" indicates frames.

Films

Again . . . Pioneers! (Rel Film, 68 min, BW.) Told in narrative form it is a moving story, with some documentary sequences dealing primarily with the attitude of communities toward migrant families. Though the story centers around one situation, it has implications for leaders and communities seriously facing up to the problems of today. Sale, Rent. Chap. 16.

And So They Live. (NYU, 25 min, BW.) Children of low-income mountain families are shown in their school and in their meager homes. The school program, barren and drab as the homes, presents no ideas that might help children or adults to master the forces that grind them down. The situations presented suggest the new curriculum needed. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 3, 6, 8, and 16.

As Our Boyhood Is. (Br, 18 min, BW.) Reports on Negro education in the rural schools of the South, showing both the worst and the best. Sale, Rent. Chap. 16.

Better Schools for Rural Wisconsin. (Wis U, 29 min, C.) Documentary film around actual experiences of teacher and pupils as they live in typical Wisconsin one-room rural school and modern central schools located in Cobleskill and Middleburgh, New York. Film in purpose reveals the typical one-room rural school as today inadequate to meet educational needs. For contrast the central school located in an open rural area is shown with its facilities and program to meet educational responsibilities. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 8, 9, and 19.

---

[1] The authors are indebted to Dr. Virginia Neel, Assistant in Rural Education, Division of Rural Service, National Education Association, for invaluable assistance in compiling and evaluating the films and filmstrips included in this list.

Bill Garman, 12-Year-Old Businessman. (Frith, 12 min, C.)
Patty Garman, Little Helper. (Frith, 12 min, C.)
Family Team Work. (Frith, 18 min, C.)

These three films present members of an American rural family as they are in real life. The films have informative value for lower and upper elementary grades; but they are included here especially for their value to teachers and parents in showing how a family can live together democratically in such a way that all are happy. Sale. Chaps. 6 and 8.

Building for Learning. (Tex A & M, 19 min, C.) Shows in nontechnical manner how important factors of light, air, sound, and school structure affect health and learning processes. Loan. Chap. 23.

Children Must Learn. (NYU, 13 min, BW.) The content of this film is much like that of *And So They Live.* The children's homes are barren, their surroundings ugly. In school, the curriculum concerns a way of life that is unknown to them—another example of failure to meet children's real needs, and a challenge to educational leaders to strive for greatly improved service in rural areas. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 3, 6, 8, and 16.

Community Resources in Teaching. (Iowa St, 20 min, BW.) Seeks to show how a community and its resources and the school can be woven into an educational program. Community resources are used as laboratory studies by pupils, and the adults of the community are brought into the school program through lectures and demonstrations. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 6, 7, 8, 9, and 14.

Designed for Learning. (Photo & Sd, 20 min, C.) Progressive steps in the construction of a modern high school in Lafayette, California. Sale, Rent. Chap. 23.

Ears That Hear. (Wis U, Lab, 17 min, C.) Depicts the auditory testing program carried on with the assistance of voluntary community workers. Shows how the program can locate children with hearing difficulties and give them assistance. Sale, Rent. Chap. 15.

Fight for Better Schools. (MOT, 20 min, BW.) How aroused citizens of Arlington County, Virginia, worked to improve their schools, voted money for more teachers, erected new schools. Rent. Chap. 18.

For Years to Come. (UWF, 22 min, C.) Produced for the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Shows the work of farmers and their families during years in which farming changed from old straight-row cultivation to modern methods of farm conservation. Sale. Chaps. 6 and 14.

Forest Conservation. (EBF, 11 min, C.) Calls attention to the many ways in which man has depleted the forest, by greedy and ignorant exploitation for his own gain, and forecasts the results of such action if continued. Suggests what is being done, and must continue to be done, in order to save the forest and its vast resources. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 6 and 14.

The Frisky Calf. (CF, 10 min, BW&C.) For kindergarten and primary children. The film has a human interest appeal. It is the story of a little calf, how he eats, plays, and grows on a farm. Sale. Chaps. 6 and 8.

From Buffalo to Cattle. (EFL-USIS, 22 min, C.) Produced for the Bureau of Indian Affairs, U.S. Department of Interior. The program of Indian education from elementary grades through senior high school is shown in this film. How pupils of varying aptitudes and interests are helped to choose study programs and vocational careers through classroom, laboratory, and shop programs in typical reservation 12-grade schools is shown. In addition, how students are given opportunities to earn their way into the cattle business is shown. Sale. Chaps. 6, 8, 9, and 16.

In Common Cause. (USDA-CS, 20 min, BW.) Especially recommended for junior and senior high school classes in civics and problems of democracy, this film shows the work of soil conservation districts, how they are formed and operated, what they have accomplished and the big job which is still before them in saving our soil. Loan. Chaps. 6, 9, 14, and 16.

Kids Must Eat. (Castle, 17 min, BW.) The story of the community lunch program sponsored by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Sale. Chaps. 7, 8, and 15.

Land of the Sun. (NEA, 24 min, C.) Presentation of problems, education, and health of the Navaho and Hopi Indians on their reservations in the Southwest. Loan. Chap. 16.

Learning Democracy through School-Community Relations. (Locke, 20 min, C.) Shows how typical public schools and communities in Michigan are developing democratic practices by providing opportunities for both youth and adults to participate in special projects. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 8, 9, 14, and 17.

Learning through Cooperative Planning. (TC, 20 min, BW.) Shows a school council completing plans to take part in the community's clean-up and beautification enterprise. Through their activities, the children learn the skills of cooperative planning. Although produced by a city school, the film shows a way of teaching that should be helpful in rural communities as well. Sale. Chaps. 6, 8, 9, and 17.

Lessons in Living. (Br, 22 min, BW.) How a state supervisor helped a small rural school change the curriculum from a textbook-centered plan to one dealing with children's concerns in the community. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 8, 15, and 21.

Listen to the Prairies. (NFB, 20 min, BW.) Shows a spring music festival as the culmination of a year's music activities in communities around Winnipeg. Sale. Rent. Chaps. 7, 8, and 17.

Living and Learning in a Rural School. (NYU, 2 reels, BW.) A portrayal of how the teachers and pupils of a two-teacher school planned and made a real motion picture. They gathered facts about the subject chosen, interviewed neighbors, took trips, and read textbooks and books borrowed from the library and other sources. A commentator tells the story, points out the highlights of teaching, and interprets the children's experiences in terms of growth and understanding. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 6 and 8.

Modern Education in Beaverton Consolidated School. (Int Harv, 13 min, BW.) The advantage of consolidated schools and the safety of modern school bus transportation. Loan. Chaps. 8, 9, and 19.

Negro Farmer. (Castle, 24 min, BW.) Outlines the work of the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service, state and Federal, among Southern Negroes. Shows what is being done to further the cause of better farming and better living. Sale. Chaps. 14 and 16.

One Tenth of Our Nation. (IFB, 26 min, BW.) Gives an authentic picture of the education of Negro children in the rural South, from one-room shacks to high schools and colleges. Emphasizes accomplishments and what is yet to be done. Sale, Rent. Chap. 16.

Patterns of American Rural Art. (Castle, 11 min, C.) Portrays folk arts that have been going on for some 150 years in the southern mountains of the United States—weaving, carving, basketry, pottery, embroidery. Sale. Chaps. 6, 8, and 9.

Plan for Rural Schools. (NFB, 15 min, BV.) Shows reorganization of rural school administration in Alberta. Sale, Rent. Chap. 19.

Principles of the Art and Science of Teaching. (Iowa St, 55 min, BW.) Designed for training preservice and in-service teachers. Shows unrehearsed activity of eleventh-grade class in American history. Showing the class planning a unit of work cooperatively. Rent. Chaps. 9, 15, and 21.

Principles of Development. (Wis U, 17 min, BW.) Outlines fundamentals of growth and change from early infancy. Presents the idea that development follows a pattern that is continuous, orderly, progressive, and predictable. Illustrates the variables that account for individual differences: intelligence, sex, glandular activity, race, nutrition, health, position in the family, and love and understanding. Rent. Chap. 8.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment—The Drop-Out. (McGraw, 20 min, BW.) Shows the characteristics of a high school program which led Steve Marlin to leave school as soon as the law permitted. A life-adjustment program, with class subjects related to interests of boys and girls, is suggested. Sale. Chap. 9.

Problem of Pupil Adjustment—The Stay-In. (McGraw, 19 min, BW.) Shows what can be done to meet problems of drop-outs when individual pupil needs are met in a school program that stresses learning in terms of adjustment to actual everyday living. Illustrative classes in poultry raising, aviation fundamentals, English, biology, and civics are presented. Sale. Chap. 9.

Rain on the Plains. (UWF, 9 min, BW.) Shows causes and effects of wind erosion and dust storms on Southern Great Plains and steps to reclaim ruined land. Soil Conservation Service recommends remedial steps. Sale. Chap. 6.

Rape of the Earth. (Brit, 20 min, BW.) Presents the world problem of soil erosion. Wind and flood have done great damage, but man has drained the earth of its strength for centuries. Remedial programs had been started before World War II, but millions of acres have been lost, some for all time. Sale, Rent. Chap. 6.

Rural School Lunches. (NFB, 4 min, BW.) Shows the difference between a hot, nourishing midday meal and a skimpy sandwich. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 7, 8, and 15.

School Bus Operation—Part 1: Bus Care and Maintenance. (Castle, 13 min, BW.) Shows the importance of maintenance checks and safe driving practices. Chap. 22.

School Bus Operation—Part 2: Passengers, Driving Hazards, Safety. (Castle, 14 min, BW.) Emphasizes the driver's responsibility for the safety of child passengers and shows through several typical situations safe driving habits and safety in handling children in getting on and off the bus. Sale. Chap. 22.

School Bus Safety. (Va, 18 min, BW.) Shows school bus operation and maintenance, and emphasizes correct use of school bus safety controls. Sale, Rent. Chap. 22.

School in Centreville. (NEA, 20 min, BW&C.) Pupils of a multi-teacher rural elementary school are at work on community problems that are important to them. Participation of pupils in planning and carrying out effective problem-solving activities is emphasized, together with the use of varied resources available to a rural school. Intended to be of value to teacher groups, teachers in training, parents, and others concerned with relating the educational experiences of pupils to specific needs and problems. Sale. Chaps. 8 and 15.

School of the Ozarks. (Swank, 20 min, C.) The story of the famous school near Branson, Missouri. Loan. Chaps. 6, 9, and 16.

The School That Learned to Eat. (Gen Mills, 22 min, C.) The story of a group of children who, because they did not have the vigor and vitality required for success in an ordinary day in school, were encouraged to keep a record of the foods they ate, to discover a possible cause of their lack of buoyant health. Parents, teachers, children, and supervisors cooperated to study the children's regular diets and to find out the kind of food that most of them might need. Sale. Chaps. 7, 8, and 15.

The Schoolhouse in the Red. (Kell, 42 min, C.) A portrayal of how the people in a community study their educational needs and decide to combine their several small schools into one large one. Deals with the sociological and psychological factors involved when the people of a community face the problem of joining their small school districts into a large administrative unit. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 7, 8, 9, 17, and 19.

Schools March On. (MOT, 18 min, BW.) Shows what happened in one midwestern county when the people of three villages and the outlying elementary school districts reorganized into one community school district. Problems of reorganization and consolidation are dramatically presented. Sale. Chaps. 7, 8, 9, 17, 18, and 19.

Secure the Blessings. (NEA, 27 min, BW.) In documentary style, the role of the public school in a democracy is dramatized. Five main characters, a farmer, businessman, labor leader, housewife, and congressman are faced with everyday problems. How they solve these problems is, to a great extent, determined by the kind of education they have received in our public schools. Presents the public school as the best place to learn to respect the rights and understand the problems of others. Sale, Rent. Chap. 7.

Tale of Two Towns. (Kell, 40 min, BW & C.) Documentary film that contrasts the ways in which two small communities went about trying to make improvements. Focused around the respective superintendents of schools. Sale, Rent. Chaps. 17 and 18.

Teaching Materials Centers. (Iowa St, 9 min, BW.) Shows the materials and resources available from a good teaching-materials center, and how the center is effectively organized. Sale, Rent. Chap. 15.

Time to Spare. (MCS, 22 min, BW). Shows how the teacher of a one-room school organizes the day's work so that there is time to spare. The teacher uses this time to work with children individually and in small groups. Sale, Rent. Chap. 8.

Who Will Teach Your Child? (McGraw, 24 min, BW.) Presents the problems of attracting superior individuals to the teaching profession, training them, and persuading them to remain in education and pass up more lucrative careers. Sale. Chap. 21.

Wilson Dam School. (TVA, 20 min, BW.) Produced in collaboration with the Alabama Department of Education to demonstrate the operation of a progressive school. Loan. Chaps. 6, 8, and 9.

FILMSTRIPS

American Farm Home Life. (USDA, 62 fr, BW.) Gives general conception of modern home life on a farm as it may be found in the United States today. Sale. Chaps. 1, 6, and 10.

Centreville through the Eyes of a Camera. (Franseth, 40 fr, C.) Shows boys and girls in a multi-teacher rural school learning ways of getting information, sharing information, and using what they learned in the work done by seventh-graders in Centreville's Elementary School. Sale. Chap. 8.

Country School. (CSBIS, 26 fr, C.) A typical day in the life of country children. Shows advantages and disadvantages of one-room country schools. Sale. Chaps. 6 and 8.

Field Day at School. (CSBIS, 25 fr, C.) Field day is like a county fair with exhibits of choice vegetables, canning, handicrafts by students, and parade through village. Sale. Chaps. 8, 9, 10, 11, and 17.

The 1951 School Building Filmstrip. (NEA, 112 fr, BW.) Shows plans of approximately 75 school buildings in all parts of the country which have been constructed since 1946 or are in process of being constructed. Produced by American Association of School Administrators. Sale. Chap. 23.

Toward Better Schools for All Children through Federal Aid. (NEA, 57 fr, BW.) Describes proposals for Federal aid to education. Sale. Chaps. 16 and 25.

The Why and How of Guidance. (Popsci, 49 fr.) Presents the idea that guidance must be the shared responsibility of home and school. Parents and teachers help each other. Sale. Chaps. 8, 9, and 15.

Wildlife and Soil Conservation. (USDA Ext, 58 fr, BW.) Shows how farmers can increase and protect wildlife by improving land pattern and growing suitable vegetation on wasteland to provide shelter and food. Sale. Chaps. 6, 8, 9, and 10.

Directory of Resources

Br—Brandom Films Incorporated, 1700 Broadway, New York 19.

Brit—British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Castle—Castle Films Division, 1445 Park Avenue, New York.

CF—Coronet Films, 65 E. S. Water Street, Chicago.

CSBIS—Curriculum Service Bureau for International Studies, Inc., 413 W. 123rd Street, New York 27.

EBF—Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois.

EFL-USIS—Educational Film Laboratory, United States Indian School, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

Franseth—Jane Franseth, 3700 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, D.C.

Frith—Frith Films, Hollywood, California.

Gen Mills—General Mills Film Library, 400 2nd Avenue S., Minneapolis.

IFB—International Film Bureau, Suite 1500, 6 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Int Harv—180 Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Iowa St—Iowa State University, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, Iowa City.

Kell—Kellogg Foundation, Battle Creek, Michigan.

Lib Film—Library Films, Inc., 25 W. 45th Street, New York.

Locke—Locke Films, Inc., 120 W. Lovell Street, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

McGraw—McGraw-Hill Text-Films, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York.

MCS—Mercer County Schools, Audio-Visual Aids Service, Princeton, West Virginia.

MOT—March of Times Forum Films, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17.

NEA—National Education Association, 1201 16th Street NW, Washington 6, D.C.

NFB—National Films Board of Canada, 620 5th Avenue, New York.

NYU—New York University Film Library, Washington Square, New York.

Photo & Sd—Photo and Sound Productions, 116 Natoma Street, San Francisco, California.

Popsci—Popular Science Publishing Company, Audio-Visual Division, 353 4th Avenue, New York 10.

Rel Film—Religious Film Associations, 35 W. 45th Street, New York 19.

Swank—Swank Motion Pictures, 614 Skinker, St. Louis.

TC—Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Tex A&M—Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, College Station, Texas.

TVA—Tennessee Valley Authority Film Services, Knoxville, Tennessee.

USDA—United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

USDA-CS—United States Department of Agriculture, Conservation Service, Washington, D.C.

USDA Ext—United States Department of Agriculture, Extension Service, Washington, D.C.

UWF—United World Films, 1445 Park Avenue, New York.

Va—Virginia State Department of Education, Film Production Service, Richmond 16.

Wis U—University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, 1312 W. Johnson Street, Madison 6, Wisconsin.

Wis U Lab—University of Wisconsin Photographic Laboratory, Madison 6, Wisconsin.

NAME INDEX

A

Ade, Lester K., 150, 152
Advisory Committee on Education (Washington, D.C.), 469
Alexander, W. W., 41
Alves, Henry F., 333, 349, 365
American Association of School Administrators, NEA, 18, 41, 99, 205, 259, 329, 385, 387, 418, 431, 469
American Council on Education, 113, 206
American Country Life Conferences, 17
American Farm Bureau Federation, 7, 242
American Institute of Architects, 416
American Institute of Cooperation, 7, 53
American Legion, 299
American Library Association, 252
American Public Health Association, 260
Anderson, Archibald W., 333, 349
Anderson, W. A., 120, 121, 182, 191, 267
Andrews, Mildred E., 206
Arkansas State Department of Education, 347
Association of District Superintendents, New York, 356
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA, 102, 107, 108, 113, 142, 143, 152, 205

B

Bailey, Liberty Hyde, 5
Bailey, W. L., 86
Baker, O. E., 31, 41, 105, 121
Ballou, Stephen V., 387
Barnard, Henry, 16
Barnes, George H., 406
Barton, John R., 168
Bathurst, Effie G., 152, 174
Bean, Louis H., 118
Belknap, Burton, 409
Benson, Arthur L., 272
Bergevin, Paul, 232, 239
Best, Clarence J., 431
Better Business Bureau, 213
Bettinger, Herbert C., 391
Blauch, Lloyd E., 287, 288, 289, 293
Blose, David T., 11, 15, 50, 285, 339, 369, 404
Bogardus, Emory S., 327
Bond, M. C., 76
Boss, Andrew, 76
Bracken, John L., 259, 272
Braselton, Annette, 321, 322, 323
Briggs, Thomas H., 168
Brim, O. G., 20
Briscoe, Alonzo Otis, 332
Brubacher, John, 205
Brueckner, Leo J., 333
Brunner, Edmund de S., 31, 79, 80, 97, 253
Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 242
Bureau of Rural Administrative Services, New York, 346
Burke, Arvid J., 469
Butterfield, Kenyon L., 5
Butterworth, Julian E., 17, 80, 95, 105, 120, 137, 159, 177, 191, 261, 309, 316, 318, 325, 327, 344, 365, 366, 389, 401, 404, 405, 407, 409, 469

C

Caliver, Ambrose, 275, 284
Campbell, Angus, 253
Carnal, Clark C., 391
Carney, Mabel, 20, 375, 376
Central Michigan College of Education, 19
Chamber of Commerce, 130, 136
Chase, Francis S., 50, 158, 335, 338–340, 343, 349, 370, 376, 377, 408, 417, 430, 453–457, 459, 460, 465, 466, 469
Chew, Arthur P., 119
Clark, Lois M., 102, 104
Cocking, Walter D., 417, 426, 431
Columbia University, 19
Commission on Teacher Education, ACE, 206

Committee on Costs of Medical Care, 254
Committee on Research in Secondary Education in New York, 171
Committee on Rural Education, NEA, 16, 17
Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, 108, 109, 111–113
Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, NEA, 374, 375, 387
Committee of Twenty-one, N.Y., 16, 17, 320, 344, 347
Community Service Society of New York, 206
Conference on Administrative Leadership of Community School Systems, 18
Conger, N., 309
Cook, Katherine M., 329
Coon, Beulah, 206
Cooper, Shirley, 361, 365, 370, 371, 378, 387
Cooperative Extension Service, 52, 240, 242–251, 347
Cooperative Land-use Planning, 241–242
Cooperative League of the United States, 128
Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, ACE, 171, 317
Corey, Herbert, 304
Cornell, Francis G., 317, 333, 469
Cornell University, 19, 64
  Agricultural Experiment Station, 66, 121, 182, 267
Council of City Superintendents, New York, 356
Council on Rural Education, New York, 17, 320, 357
Country Life Commission, 16
Covert, Timon, 337, 408, 409
Craig, H. C., 299
Crane, Edmund H., 365, 366
Cressman, Paul L., 169
Cruickshank, William M., 262
Cubberley, Ellwood P., 15, 20, 273, 328, 330, 451
Culp, D. P., 409
Cunningham, L. C., 76
Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary Principals Association, 174
Cyr, Frank W., 17, 129, 137, 174, 366, 418, 429, 431, 469

D

Davis, Chester C., 20
Davis, J. E., 306
Dawson, Howard A., 18, 92, 137, 329, 332–335, 337, 341, 342, 344, 346, 349, 360, 366, 368, 376, 392, 407, 452
Deffenbaugh, Walter S., 337
De Graff, Herrell, 76
Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA, 387
Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 152
Department of Rural Education, NEA, 7, 18, 20, 31, 59, 113, 137, 146, 149, 152, 282, 293, 371, 373, 387, 470
Department of Superintendence, NEA, 327
Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, NEA, 293
Devilbiss, Wilbur, 174
Dewey, John, 296, 327
Deyoe, George P., 191
Dillon, Harold J., 162
Division of Exceptional Children, U.S. Office of Education, 262
Division of Rural Service, NEA, 18, 348
Division of Tax Research, U.S. Treasury, 461
Doolan, Edward A., 407
Douglass, Harl R., 174
Ducoff, Louis J., 34, 36–39, 275, 278, 293
Dunn, Fannie W., 152

E

Eastern Business Association, 223
Eaton, Theodore H., 177, 180, 191
Eaves, Robert W., 309
Educational Policies Commission, NEA, 18, 99, 123, 137, 152, 167, 174, 257, 297, 334
Edwards, Everett, 20
Edwards, Newton, 49, 59, 459, 469
Eliot, Charles W., 296
Elliot, F. F., 20
Embree, Edwin R., 20, 119, 293
Endicott, Frank S., 222
Ensminger, Douglas, 40, 293
Everett, Marcia, 366, 387
Extension Service Committee, U.S. Department of Agriculture, 244

F

Farm Bureau, 130, 297, 380
Featherston, E. Glenn, 395, 397, 400, 404, 409
Federal Land Bank, 75
Ferree, M. J., 306
Fitzwater, Charles O., 309
Foght, H. W., 20
Follett, Mary P., 327
Ford, Henry, 34
Forrester, Gertrude, 272
4-H Clubs, 52, 80, 193, 210, 245, 246, 249, 250, 299
Fowler, Seymour, 270
Fowlkes, John Guy, 333, 349
Fox, William H., 174
Frame, Nat T., 240
Franseth, Jane, 146
Frederick, Robert W., 113
Freeman, M. Herbert, 222
Froelich, Clifford P., 268, 269, 270, 272
Future Farmers of America, 80, 186, 187, 191, 210, 299
Future Homemakers of America, 80, 201, 206, 210

G

Galpin, C. J., 80–82, 86
Gaumnitz, Walter H., 160, 161, 174, 293, 339
Gavian, Ruth Millicent Wood, 222
Genung, A. B., 20
George Peabody College for Teachers, 19
Gibbs, Andrew H., 400, 409
Glueck, Eleanor T., 296, 297, 309
Good, C. D., 294
Goodykoontz, Bess, 206
Gove, Aaron C., 296
Grace, A. G., 342
Gragg, William L., 162, 163
Grange, 7, 91, 242, 243, 317, 380
Gregory, Raymond T., 174
Greider, Calvin, 387
Groves, Harold M., 435
Gucky, Joseph B., 304

H

Hagood, Margaret Jarman, 24, 25, 31, 32, 34–36, 38, 39, 125–127, 278
Ham, William T., 41, 293
Hamburger, Ernest, 232
Hamlin, Herbert H., 191
Hammonds, Carsie, 181, 191
Hamon, Ray L., 413, 418, 419, 424, 431
Hamrin, Shirley A., 272
Hanna, Paul R., 174
Harmon, Darrell B., 431
Hart, B. H., 41
Hart, V. B., 76
Hatcher, Hazel M., 206
Hatcher, Latham, 273
Hearne, Cannon Chiles, 253
Heck, Arch O., 265, 272, 273
Hedlund, Paul A., 414
Heystead, Ladd, 76
Hicks, J. R., 435
Hicks, Ursala K., 435
Hoffsomer, Harold, 51
Holley, Charles E., 273
Hollingshead, A. B., 174
Home Bureau, 130, 380
Hull, J. Dan, 166
Hurlburt, Allan T., 309
Hutchins, Clayton D., 394
Hutchins, Margaret, 423

I

Illinois Agricultural Association, 347
Intermediate District Study, New York, 261
International Harvester Company, 299
Iowa State College, 19
Iowa State Teachers College, 19
Ivins, Wilson H., 174

J

Jafferi, Ghulam-Hussain, 296, 297
Johns, R. L., 405
Johnson, Clifton, 20
Johnson, Collus O., 300
Johnson, Sherman E., 76
Johnstone, Paul H., 4, 20
Joint Committee on Rural Schools, Ithaca, N.Y., 17
Jones, Galen, 174
Julius Rosenwald Fund, 119

K

Kahler, Alfred, 232, 239
Keesecker, Ward W., 307
Kellogg Foundation, 304, 318
Kelsey, Lincoln David, 253
Kendrick, M. Slade, 439, 448

Keys, Zella, 146
Kifer, R. S., 41
Kirk, Samuel A., 272
Kiwanis, 91, 136, 299
Kohn, Laura U., 319, 327
Kolb, J. H., 78, 79, 80, 97
Kullman, N. E., Jr., 298, 430
Kunsela, William R., 421

L

Landis, Paul H., 41, 83, 97
Lang, Osian H., 296
Langfitt, R. E., 174
Lawler, Eugene S., 466, 469, 470
Lay-professional Councils on Education, 320
Lee, Ata, 423, 431
Lee, Dorris M., 153
Lee, J. Murray, 153
Lesser, C. E. V., 435
Lesser, Simon O., 20, 59
Lincoln, Murray D., 128
Lindeman, Eduard C., 327
Lindstrom, David E., 41
Linn, Henry H., 418, 431
Lippitt, Ronald, 253
Lord, H. H., 438
Lyle, Mary, 206
Lyon, Leverett S., 222

M

McCharen, William K., 113, 299, 301, 302, 309
McCormick, Harold D., 261
McVey, Frank L., 17
Magee, Elizabeth Mary, 222
Mann, Horace, 15, 16
Maris, Paul V., 41
Markham, W. T., 273
Marshall, D. G., 82–86, 163
Martens, Elsie H., 261
Masons, 136
Meadows, Austin R., 390, 396, 409
Meece, Leonard E., 303
Metzner, Charles A., 253
Michigan State College, 19
Michigan State Normal College, 19
Michigan State Department of Public Instruction, 223, 304
Missouri State Department of Education, 223
Moe, G. A., 342
Moehlman, Arthur B., 319, 327
Morgan, Arthur E., 97
Morphet, Edgar L., 50, 113, 158, 165, 333, 335, 338–340, 343, 349, 370, 376, 377, 408, 417, 430, 453–457, 459, 460, 465, 466, 469
Morrison, J. Cayce, 317, 366
Mort, Paul R., 317, 333, 450, 464–466, 469
Mott, Frederick D., 124, 254, 255, 272
Mumford, Eben, 327
Munsingwear, Inc., 230
Murray, Florence, 281, 282

N

National Apprentice Training Service, U.S. Department of Labor, 233
National Association of Assessing Officers, 440, 441, 449
National Association of Secondary School Principals, NEA, 174, 223, 356
National Business Teachers Association, 223
National Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth, 166
National Commission on Safety Education, NEA, 397, 410
National Commission on School District Reorganization, NEA, 18, 92, 163, 333, 337, 348, 407
National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents of Schools, 18, 385
National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, 314–316, 326, 327, 382, 387
National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 318
National Council of Chief State School Officers, 396
National Council of Farmer Cooperatives, 7, 243
National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, 418, 419, 425
National Council on Teacher Retirement, NEA, 387
National Education Association, 17, 18, 20, 99, 297, 367, 385–387
(*See also* separate committees and departments)

National Farmers' Union, 7, 243, 380
National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 259
National Institute of Economic and Social Research, 435
National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., 272
National Society for the Study of Education, 239, 296
Neel, Virginia, 471
Nelson, A. Gordon, 265, 270
New Homemakers of America, 201
New York City Board of Education, 272, 424, 431
New York State Council on Rural Education, 356
New York State Education Department, 144, 153, 161, 258, 303, 304, 345, 413, 418, 423, 431
New York State Institute of Applied Arts and Science, Utica, 228
Newell, Clarence A., 317
Newsom, N. W., 174
Nichols, Frederick G., 223
Nimkoff, Meyer F., 206
Noble, M. C. S., Jr., 410
North Dakota School of Science, Wahpeton, 228
North Georgia Trade and Vocational School, Clarkesville, 229
Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, 19
Northrup, Grant J., 269
Norton, John K., 466, 470

O

Oberteuffer, Delbert, 259, 272
Odd Fellows, 136
Office of Education, U. S., 9, 423
Ogden, Jean, 137, 253, 327
Ogden, Jesse, 137, 253, 327
Oklahoma A & M College, 19, 229
Olsen, Edward G., 300, 302, 309
Olson, Clara M., 309
Osborn, Fairfield, 113
Overstreet, Harry, 206

P

Parent-Teacher Association, 80, 299, 304, 317, 319, 347, 408, 412
Pattington, M. G., 398
Paulson, Blanche B., 272
Pearson, Irving A., 95
Perkins, Laurence B., 417, 431
Perry, Clarence A., 296
Peterson, Milo J., 163
Pollard, L. Belle, 206
Pond, George A., 76
Pope, Farnham G., 392–394
Poston, Richard W., 97
Prosser, Charles A., 165, 166, 179, 191, 232, 239
Public Health Service, U.S., 255
Public Utility Commission of Pennsylvania, 447

Q

Quigley, Thomas H., 179, 191, 232, 239

R

Ragsdale, C. E., 137
Rakestraw, C. E., 235, 239
Ransom, William L., 172, 316
Raper, Arthur F., 293
Rapking, A. H., 240
Ratcliffe, S. C., 84, 85, 86
Reavis, William C., 153
Red Cross, 259
Reeder, Ward G., 319, 327, 410
Reeves, Floyd W., 18, 59, 92, 137, 329, 332–335, 337, 341, 342, 344, 346, 349, 360, 368, 407
Renne, R. R., 438
Research Division, NEA, 160, 348, 368, 369, 372, 373, 376, 385, 387, 453, 460–462, 465
Reusser, Walter C., 450, 464, 465, 469
Richey, Herman G., 469
Riis, Jacob, 296
Roberts, Roy W., 168
Robertson, Lynn S., 76
Roemer, Milton I., 124, 254, 255, 272
Rogers, Maria L., 318
Roosevelt, Theodore, 16
Rotary, 91, 130, 136, 299
Ruegsegger, Virgil, 317, 389, 399, 401, 404, 405, 409
Rural Educational Policy Commission, 297

S

Sabin, Henry, 16
Sanchez, George T., 288, 293

Sanderson, Dwight, 41, 79, 97, 327
Schuler, Edgar A., 125
Schultz, Clarence, 96
Schultz, Theodore W., 44, 53, 54, 57, 59
Scott, Carrie M., 299
Scott, Don, 357
Scouts, 80, 299
Scudder, Myron T., 296
Seay, Maurice F., 303
Segel, David, 174
Shipley, Clifford B., 223
Silverberg, Joseph D., 449
Smith, Donnal V., 113
Smith, T. Lynn, 84
Snyder, Edgar F., 391
Soper, Wayne W., 161, 206
Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems, 108, 109, 111–113, 165, 321
Sparlin, Estal E., 438
Spaulding, Francis T., 333, 334
Spaulding, Richard C., 447
Spears, Harold, 166, 167
Sprague, Elfreda, 262
Stapley, Maurice E., 396
Starrak, J. A., 342
Stevenson, Elizabeth, 196
Stewart, Otto J., 398
Stonecipher, Ernest E., 431
Stout, N. J., 306
Strang, Ruth, 273
Swiger, Rachael R., 125
Syracuse University, 306

T

Taeuber, Conrad, 31, 41, 105, 121
Taylor, Carl C., 20, 32, 35, 36, 40, 41, 52, 59, 97, 278, 293
Tennessee Valley Authority, 102, 113
Thombrough, Albert, 41
Tipton, James H., 129
Todd, Arthur J., 327
Tompkins, Ellsworth, 160, 161
Tonne, Herbert A., 223
Turner, Clair E., 260, 300

U

University of Chicago Conference on Business Education, 222
University of Georgia, 19, 321, 322
University of the State of New York, 137, 319
University of Wisconsin, 19, 297, 306, 319

V

Vance, Rupert V., 41, 293
Vincent, William S., 317
Virginia State Education Department, 301
Vocational Education and Extension Board, Rockland County, New York, 228
Vogt, William, 113

W

Wale, Fred G., 293
Walker, Mabel L., 445, 449
Warburton, Amber Arthun, 279, 280
Ward, Edward J., 297
Warren, Stanley W., 35, 50
Weather Bureau, U. S., 72
Weinrich, Ernest F., 161, 206
West Virginia University, Agricultural Extension Service, 240
Western Michigan State Teachers College, 19
White, Warren T., 416, 418, 431
White House Conference on Rural Education, 17, 128, 191, 297
Wilkerson, Doxey A., 293
Wilkinson, Mildred R., 319, 327
Williamson, Maude, 206
Wilson, William K., 415
Wisconsin Bureau of Civic and Social Center Development, 297
Wisconsin Committee on Rural Community High Schools, 17
Wofford, Kate V., 20, 153, 387
Woodruff, Wilda, 146
Woods, Ralph H., 76
Works, George A., 17, 20, 59, 95
Wright, Grace S., 174

Y

Yang, E. Hsin Pao, 253

Z

Zeran, Franklin R., 273
Zimmerman, Erich W., 100

SUBJECT INDEX

A

Administrative personnel, character of, 380–385
  number of, 368
Administrative units, 329
  definition of, 329
  historical development of, 328–330
  number of, 335, 337–338
  relations to communities and neighborhoods, 331–332
  reorganization of (*see* Reorganization of school districts)
  services of, 330–331
  size of, 332–333
  (*See also* School districts)
Adult education (*see* Community organization; Cooperative Extension Service; Family-life education; Libraries, Out-of-school education)
Agricultural production, changes in, 3–5, 23–28, 34–37, 54
  data on, by size of farm, 60–61
  mechanization of, 24–25, 34, 121
  overpopulation in relation to, 53–54
Agricultural suite, 420–421
Agricultural workers, classification of, 36–37
  disadvantaged, 274, 276, 278
  displacement of, 35
  income of, 43–44, 277–278
  migratory (*see* Migratory agricultural workers)
  production per worker, 25, 26, 34, 121
Agriculture, as general education, 186
  at high school level, 129
  (*See also* Farming; Vocational education, in agriculture)
Apprenticeship in industrial education, 225, 232–233
Architect of school building, 416
Area, attendance, site of high school in, 411
Area, tertiary, definition of, 80
Area schools, for agricultural preparation, 177
  for industrial education, 226
Assessment (*see* Tax assessment)
Assessor, 434, 440–445
Attendance, school, 7–15, 283–285, 288
  irregular among agricultural workers, 36
  poorest among disadvantaged, 279
  in relation to, enrollment, 13, 14
    income, 51
    length of school year, 14, 15, 40
Attendance service, 270–271
  legal and educational necessity for, 270
Attendance supervisors, 369
Attendance unit, 329
  affected by distance and time of travel, 334
  definition of, 329
  elementary school and, 141
  historical development of, 329
  relations to communities and neighborhoods, 331–332
  services of, 329
  size of, 333–334
Auditorium, 420

B

Backward children, special classes for, 264
  (*See also* Exceptional children)
Birth rate, 3, 29–30, 53, 413–414
Board of education, county, status of, in Iowa, 360
Branch elementary school, 94, 428
Broad-fields curriculum, 167
Bus, school, 15, 34, 148
  ownership of, 392–395
  safety standards for, 396–397
  servicing of, 395
  (*See also* Pupil transportation)
Bus drivers, 369. 397–399

Business education, for adults, 218–219
  ascertaining community needs for, 156, 164, 211–214
    employment-opportunity survey, 212
    follow-up study, 212–213, 215
    job analysis, 213–214
  in colleges, 219
  concepts of, 207, 209
  conditions influencing, 207–208
  curriculum in, courses, minimum offering, 216–217
    subject content and sequence, 216–218
  guidance in, 214–215
  historical development of, 208–209
  local advisory committees in, 219
  objectives of, 208–211, 213, 214, 226
  suite for, 424
Business teachers, preparation of, 219–221

C

Campus school, 427
Caste system, 274, 292
Central school district, 94, 344
  (*See also* Community school district)
Child in elementary school, 142–144
  characteristics and needs of, 142, 143
  curriculum for, 144
  focus and center of elementary education, 142–144
  rural, needs of, 143
Child labor in commercial agriculture, 280
Children, number of, and rural income, 46–49, 128
  population statistics on, 7–14, 28–32
Citizenship, good, development of, 118, 130, 131
Classrooms, new conceptions in, 417–426
College-preparatory education, 163–166, 170
Colleges, influence of, 18–19
Color in school buildings, 424
Common-school districts, 328–330, 336
  abolition of, by Horace Mann, 16
  origin and development of, 328
Communicable diseases, 258–259
Communication, effects of, on rural school, 6, 34
Communities related to school districts, 91, 93–95, 331, 332
Community, rural, 78–96
    definition of, 79–80
    divisive and unifying influences, 88, 89
    educational organization of, 89–96
    mapping of, 80–82
    services in, 79–80
    tertiary, or area, 80, 92, 344
    types of, 78–80
Community-centered school, administration of, 304–308
  definition of, 294
  development of, 295–297
  evaluating needs for, 306–307
  financing of, 306–307
  initiating, 305
  legal status of, 307
  programs, 298–305
    leadership in coordination of, 303–304, 306
  special services to community in, 301–303, 305
  teaching in, 306
  theory underlying, 295
  use of community resources by, 300, 301
  use of school plant, further extension of, 296–299
Community council, 89
  composition of, 91
  place of, 89–91
Community organization and agriculture, 241, 242
  school district reorganization related to, 241
Community school district, 78–82, 89–95, 241, 337, 344, 411
  illustrated, 93–95, 411
  in New York, 344–345
  sociological theory underlying, 78–82, 89–95
  tertiary area related to, 80, 92, 344
  unifying influence of, 90–91
Community school program (*see* Community-centered school)
Company ownership and the disadvantaged, 281
Compulsory-attendance laws, 270
  Florida, 390
Compulsory school attendance and pupil transportation, 390

Conservation, 107–109
Consolidated school district, definition of, 95
  (*See also* School districts)
Consolidations, school, 139–141
Cooperative Extension Service, 243–251
  created by Smith-Lever Act, 243
  educational responsibility of, 244, 245
  extent of, 52
  financing of, 245–247
  lay leaders in, 250
  methods, 248
    club work, 248–249
    community discussion groups, 250
    demonstrations, 248
    evaluation of, 250, 251
  personnel, 242, 244–248
  purpose of, 243–247
Cooperative land-use planning, 241, 242
Cooperative type of vocational training program, agricultural, 241–244
  industrial, 226, 227
Cooperatives, farm, teaching about, 129
Coordinate system of rural and urban schools, evolution of, 136
Coordinator, role of, in industrial education, 234
Core curriculum, 167
Correlated curriculum, 149, 166
Correspondence study, 173
Counseling, definition of, 266
County agent, 63, 244, 245
County unit, 329, 335–338
  growth and organization of, 15, 173, 411
  and intermediate units, 350–352
  personnel, 383–385
  professional staff in, 361
  size of, 336
  (*See also* Reorganization of school districts; School districts)
Credit facilities for farm and home purchase, 280
Curriculum organization, in business education, 215–217
  in community-centered school, 298–304
  in Cooperative Extension Service, 244–245
  in elementary schools, 6, 144–146, 149
    daily schedule for learning units, 150
Curriculum organization, in high schools, 7, 166–169
  in homemaking education, 197
  in industrial education, 233–238
  in out-of-school education, 183, 185, 189, 240–243
  in vocational education in agriculture, 182–184
    prevocational, 179
    supervised farm-experience program, 183

D

Dependent school districts, number of, 338
Disadvantaged groups, in agriculture, 277–281
  causes of, 274, 276–277
  classification of, 275
  education needed for, 277, 279–280, 291–292
  in rural-nonfarm communities, 281
  services needed for, 51–52, 280
  (*See also* Indians; Negroes; Spanish Americans)
Discrimination, 274, 276, 282, 283
Disease, communicable, 258–259
  extent of, in rural areas, 254–255
Disenfranchisement, 274, 276
Distribution of state school funds, 463–467
  combination plans, 465–466
  equalizing funds, 464–467
  Federal aid, 467–468
  financing of complete program, 466–467
  flat grants, 463
  large-fund plans, 464
  in reorganization, 342–343
  small-fund plans, 464–465
  special-aid and stimulation funds, 463–464
Diversified occupations, cooperative program, 227, 233–238
Dropouts from high school, 159–163
  estimated percentage of, 160
  rural and urban compared, 160–161
  studies of, 161–163

E

Economic interdependence, 52–54, 118–119, 208

Education, rural, 3–19, 77–86, 89–96, 117–136
  (*See also* specific education entries)
Educational attainment, 40
  (*See also* Schooling, years of)
Educational load, 466
Elementary schools, adjustments in, 149–151
  classrooms for, 415, 418–419
  curriculum, 6, 139, 144–151
  daily schedule for, 150
  deficiencies in, 140
  enrollment in, 9–15, 40, 138–141, 160
  function of rural, 143
  home- and family-life education in, 193–194
  number of, 139–140, 338
  one-teacher, 139, 335, 338, 339
  program for, 132, 146–149
  purposes and standards of, 141–142
  size of, 333
    in relation, to cost, 342
      to district organization, 339–340
  standards for, 141–142
Enrollment, in agriculture courses, 39–40
  in business education, 209
  in correspondence study, 173
  in elementary schools, 9–15, 138–140
    children not in school, 14, 140
    number of pupils continuing, 160
  future, estimated, 14, 29, 92–95, 138, 413–414
  in high schools, 158–163
  increase in, 12–13
  of migratory children, 279
  statistics on, 7–15
Equalization of educational opportunities, 458, 459
  concept of, 274
  failure to meet, for disadvantaged, 51, 281, 283–284, 292
Evaluation methods and techniques, 171–172
Exceptional children, facilities for, 262–264
  number of, 260–263
  programs for, 263–265
  responsibility for, 122
  state aid for, 343
  types of defect, 261
Expenditures for schools, future of, 468
  history of, 451–453
  in proportion to, income, 50, 453, 455, 458–459
    number of children, 50, 453, 458–459
  per pupil, 50, 284, 285, 456, 457
  rural and urban differences in, 50, 454–456
  variations in, 453–454, 460
  (*See also* Public school finance)
Experience curriculum, 167
Extension services, insufficient, 51, 52

F

Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended in 1949, 280
Family-commercial farms, in early American life, 4
  problems in starting, 72–75
  profits on, 65–72, 75
  qualifications for success in, 63–65
  (*See also* Farming; Farms)
Family-life education, 192–197
  for adults, 198, 200, 201
  community cooperation in, 193–194
  definition of, 192
  elementary school and, 194
  in home, 192
  leadership in, 193–195
  (*See also* Homemaking education)
Farm equipment, use of, 67–68, 71–72
  value of, 53
Farm land, inequalities in assessment of, 55, 438
Farm leaders, opinions of, 7
Farm organizations, 7, 242–243
  (*See also* Cooperative Extension Service)
Farm workers (*see* Agricultural workers)
Farmers, economic status of, 125–129
  income of (*see* Income, rural)
  percentage of, in population, 128
Farming, combination of enterprises in, 69–71
  preparation for (*see* Vocational education, in agriculture)
  and prices, 65–66
  rates of production in, 68–69
  success in, 60–75
Farms, capital for, 74–75

Farms, choice of, 72–74
  family-commercial (*see* Family-commercial farms)
  organization of, 61–63, 66–71
  sizes of, 35–36, 60–61, 66
  types of, 33, 35–36, 60–63
Federal aid for education, 52, 189, 453, 467–468
  industrial, 225, 235
Federal funds for schools, 453, 459–460
Films and filmstrips, 471–476
Financial ability of rural communities, 87, 466
  (*See also* Income, rural)
Financing rural schools (*see* Public school finance)
Formula, Wilson's, for estimating number of rooms in school building, 415
4-H Clubs, 249–250
Fused curriculum, 149, 166
Future Farmers of America, 186–187
Future Homemakers of America, 201

G

Garages, 423–424
General Allotment Act of 1887, 288
George-Barden Acts, 226
George-Deen Act, 55
Georgia Accrediting Commission, 321, 322
Government as resource, 103–104
Government policies and programs, 54–56
  effect on rural life, 56–58, 154, 155
Guidance, 265–270
  in agriculture, 178–182
  in business education, 214–215
  in industrial education, 233–237
  personnel requirements, 369
  "shared" director in, 269

H

Hamlets, characteristics of, 82–89
  definition of, 82, 89
  (*See also* Villages)
Handicapped children, 260–265
  (*See also* Exceptional children)
Health in rural areas, 254–255
Health education, 259–260
Health services, counties providing, 52, 257
  in schools, 122, 124
High school teachers, number of, 156–157
High schools, adjustments in, 169–170
  buildings (*see* School buildings)
  classrooms, number and type in, 415–418
  correspondence study in, 173
  curriculum, 7, 166–174
    types of, 166–167
    vocational, 170
      in agriculture, 177
  districts for, 336, 340
    reorganization of, 173, 339–340
  dropouts, 159–163
    special studies in, 161–163
  enrollment in, 9–15, 39, 154, 156–163
  evaluation of standards, 171–172
  extension of program in, 172–174
  family-life education in, 149
  improvement of, 170–174
  life-adjustment education in, 165–170
  major purposes and functions of, 171
  number of, 156–157, 182, 338–341
    trends in, 339
  program for, 132–134, 163–169
  projects, 169
  size of, 158–159
    minimum, 333–334
    related to district organization, 339–340
  small, problems of, 159, 169–170, 339–340
  universal education in, 154–158
Home agent, 244
Homemaking center, room and equipment for, 421–423
Homemaking education, administration of, 204
  cooperative responsibility for, 202
  in family life, 192–197
  financing of, 202–203
  group programs, 197–201
  for married couples, 200–201
  for out-of-school youth, 200
  school lunch in, 194, 203–204
  for wage earners, 200
Homemaking teachers, responsibility of, 195–197, 203
  summer employment of, 201–202

I

Illiteracy, 40, 51, 278, 283–284, 290
Income, rural, of agricultural workers, 43–44
  distribution of, among families, 44–45, 87
    among states, 45–46
  and educational attainment, 50–51, 64
  and expenditures for schools, 48–50
  factors in future of, 56–58
  farm, 60–61, 65–66, 127–129
    and nonfarm, 42–45, 47–50
  median wage in, 51
  and number of children, 46–49
  social effects of, 51–52
Indians, education of, 287–289
    Federal responsibility for, 287–288
    programs of, 288–290
    teachers for, 290
  groups of, 287
  number of, 275, 287
    in schools, 288–290
Industrial education, age and grade levels for, 226
  apprenticeship and, 225, 232, 233
  community participation in, 234
  development of, 238–239
  financing of, 226, 467
  labor market for, 229–230
  occupational groupings of, 224–226, 232
  as preparation for employment, 156, 164, 227–229
  problems of, 230–232, 237
  programs for, 238–239
    diversified occupations, 38–39, 226, 227, 233–238
  schools for, 225, 226, 229, 231, 232
    mobile units in, 232
  training within industry, 226, 227, 229
Industrial production, overpopulation and, 53–54
Industrial workers, income of, 43–44, 277–278
Industry, distribution of workers in, 39, 88
  in rural areas, 230
Intermediate districts, 96, 173, 350–365, 411
  administrative staffs of, 360–361
  and county unit, compared, 350–352
Intermediate districts, essentials of, 359–362
  in evolution, 172, 173, 362–365, 383
  functions of, 358–359
  organization of, 352–357, 362
  professional staff in, 361
  pupil transportation and, 159, 358, 390, 394, 406–407
  superintendents of, 383–384
  supervisory district and, 96
  supervisory union, 354
  theory of, 352–353
  types of, 353–357
    county, 354–355
    socioeconomic, 356–357
Inventions, 5–6, 34
Isolation, causes and degree of, 23, 32–34, 143, 173
Itinerant teachers, 218

J

Junior college, in intermediate districts, 134, 359
  minimum size of, 333, 334
  programs, 226, 228, 232

K

Kindergartens, 140–141, 145
  desirable enrollment in, 140, 333
  estimated future enrollment in, 414
  lack of, in rural schools, 140

L

Labor, rural, 44, 61–63
    (*See also* Agricultural workers)
Labor legislation and education, 226, 233
Labor market, industrial, for rural youth, 229–230
Land and water, better use of, 108, 241–242
Land-grant colleges, 55, 241–242, 467
Laws and Acts affecting rural life, Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended 1949, 280
  General Allotment Act of 1887, 288
  George-Barden Acts, 226
  George-Deen Act, 55, 226
  Illinois law of 1919, 95
  Iowa laws, 363

Laws and Acts affecting rural life, New York laws (central districts), 95, 356, 363, 364, 365
  of 1947 on use of school buildings, 307
 Oregon laws of 1946, 307
 Smith-Hughes Act, 175, 189, 226, 243
 Smith-Lever Act, 243
 Wheeler-Howard Act of 1934, 288
Lay-professional cooperation, 306, 320
Leaders, administrators as official, 326, 381–383
 lay, 250
 neighborhood, 241
Leadership, 303, 313–326
 definition of, 314–316
 democratic, 315
 difficulty in achieving, 323–324
 essential elements in, 316–321
 illustration of, 321–323
 improvement in, 325, 326
 official, 326
 personal characteristics desirable for, 324–325
 types of, 314–316
Level of living, index of, 125–127
 (*See also* Standard of living)
Librarians, 369
Libraries, 251–253
 estimate of cost of services, 252
 in intermediate district, 359
 lack of, statistics, 51, 52, 252, 302
 regional plan of organization of, 252
 rooms and equipment for, 419–420
Life-adjustment education, 165–170
 purpose of, 166
 problems in, 167–169
 in South, 165
 theory of, 295
 (*See also* Out-of-school education)
Local districts, coordination of, 173
 reorganization of (*see* Reorganization of school districts)
 responsibility of, for pupil transportation, 390, 406–407
 socioeconomic conception of, 95
 and teacher tenure, 374
Local funds for schools, 450–452
 equalization, requirements under, 465
 guiding principles of, 462–463
Local funds for schools, sources of, 459, 460
 (*See also* Public school finance)
Local School Units Project, U.S. Office of Education, 332
Lyceum, 295

M

Machinery, farm, 53, 71–72
Mapping, techniques for, 80–82, 389–390, 442
Markets, reciprocal rural and urban values, 53
Measurement of opinions about rural living, 120
Mechanics in industrial education, 236
Migration, educational problems of, 32, 36, 53, 131–132
 effect of, on school program, 121, 131–132, 282
 of Negroes, 282
 net, from farms, 31–32, 131–132
 rural-urban, 5, 23, 31–32, 37, 53
Migratory agricultural workers, 274, 278–280
 lack of educational opportunities for, 279
 number and geographic distribution of, 278, 279
Mining and manufacturing, disadvantaged persons in, 274
Minorities, equal chance for, 274–277, 279, 281
Mobile unit, 173, 232
Motor vehicles, value of, 53
 (*See also* Bus, school)

N

National Education Association (*see* Name Index)
Natural resources, 102–103
Negroes, education of, 281–287
  deficiencies in, 283–284
  needs in, 286–287
  statistics on, 283–286
 migration of, 282
 number of, 275, 281, 282
 segregation of, 274, 276
  in schools, 282–283

Neighborhood, 79–80, 92–93
  definition of, 79
  as related to school organization, 92–93, 331–332
New York Education Law, 1947, 307, 466
New York State, reorganization of school districts in, 344–346
  taxation in, 445–446
Nurse, school, 256, 257, 369
Nursery school, 299

O

Occupational status, 39, 88
  farm and nonfarm, 88
Occupational stratification, 120
Occupations, agricultural and nonagricultural employment compared, 37–40
  changes in, 23, 37–39
On-the-job training, 225, 227
One-teacher schools, 335
  buildings for, 427–428
  preparation of teachers for, 379–380
Organized labor and industrial education, 234
Orientals, number of, in United States, 275
Out-of-school education, in agriculture, 182–186
  community organization of, 240–241
  by Cooperative Extension Service, 243–251
  by cooperative land-use planning, 241–242
  by farm organizations, 242–243
  Federal support of, 243
  in homemaking, 198, 200–201
  libraries in, 240, 251–253

P

Patterns of settlement, 23, 32–34
Pennsylvania, taxation in, 447–448
Personnel for rural schools, living conditions of, 373
  number needed, 367–369
  preparation, amount of, 375–378
    character of, 378–385
  professional organizations for, 385–386
  promotion of, 373–374
Personnel for rural schools, retirement security for. 372
  salaries of, 369–372
  selection of, 373–374
  tenure of, 374–375
  welfare benefits for, 372–373
  (*See also* Administrative personnel; Superintendents; Teachers)
Personnel services (*see* Pupil personnel services)
Physical defects, examination for, 255–258
Poll taxes, 448
Population, disadvantaged groups in, 275
    Indians, 275, 287
    Negroes, 275, 282
    Orientals, 275
    Spanish Americans, 274–275
  rural, age composition of, 28–29, 87
    birth rates in, 29–31
    changes in, 24–32, 85
    compared with urban, 5, 8–9, 24–28
    decline in, 25–26
    density of, 32
    educational attainment of, 40
    income of (*see* Income)
    migration of (*see* Migration)
    nonfarm, 77–78, 87–89, 275, 281, 290
    occupations of, 37–39
    patterns of settlement of, 32–34
    regional distribution of, 26–28
    and school finance, 454–458
    in villages, 82–85, 87–88
  school-age, in disadvantaged groups, 277, 279–280
    and expenditure for schools, 48–50
    in high schools, 156–158
    and income, 46–48
    increase of, 3, 8
    statistics on, 7–14, 28–32
Prices, and agricultural production, 54
  consumers' index of, 457
  and profits of farming, 65–72
Principals, number required, 368
Private schools, estimated enrollment in, 13
  and industrial education, 225, 228
Programs, representative, 107–109, 146–148, 298–305
Promotion of personnel, 373–374
Property tax, 433–445

Public policies and services, 54–56, 280
Public school finance, cost of, estimated, 341–342, 466, 468
  development of, 450–453
  distribution of (*see* Distribution of state school funds)
  principles of, 462–463
  sources of, 459–463
    local, state, and Federal, 459–460
    taxation (*see* Taxes)
  state aid for (*see* State aid)
  variations in, economic ability, 87, 453
    effort and expenditures, 453–454
    in proportion to rural population, 454–458
    within states, 454, 456
Pupil personnel services, 254–271, 358
  attendance, 270–271
  coordination of, 271
  definition of, 266
  guidance, 265–270
  for handicapped children, 260–265
  health, 254–260
  staff for, 369
Pupil reports, 146–148
Pupil-teacher ratio, 141, 284–285, 466
Pupil transportation, cost of, 393–394, 400–406
  development of, 388–389
  economy in, 405–406
  hazards in, 390, 396–399
  by intermediate districts, 358
  local vs. intermediate-district control, 406–407
  mapping of, 389–390, 395–396
  ownership of vehicles, 392–395
  program for, 388, 399–400, 407–409
  records and reports of, 399
    financial, 400–403
  routes and schedules, 390, 395–396
  safety requirements for, 396–399
  state aid for, 343, 408–409, 467
  time on road, 391
  walking distance in, 390–391

R

Real estate taxes (*see* Taxes, real estate)
Recreation facilities, need of, 303, 307
Reorganization of school districts, 3, 139, 172–173
Reorganization of school districts, community relationships in, 331–332
  finance in, 341–344
  in New York, 344–346
  principles of, 329–334, 347–348
  services required in, 330–331
  state aid for, 342–343
  units in, number of, 335–341
    size of, 332–341
    type of, 334–337
  in various states, 330, 335, 346–348
Reports, on education, 15–18
  school, new type of, 318
Resource-use education, 98–112,119–120, 299–301
  examples of, 107–109, 146–148, 298–305
  in life adjustment, 165–168
  philosophy of, 109–111
  program for, 111–112
Resources, classification of, 100–102
  in government, 103–104
  natural, 102–103
  in rural life, 104–107, 119–120
Retirement plans, 372
Revenue for schools, 460–462
  (*See also* Taxes)
Roads and highways, 34, 55
  pupil transportation and, 398–399
Rural community (*see* Community, rural)
Rural education, 40
  changes in, 3–4, 6–7, 15–18
    in community structure, 89–96
    in economic and social progress, 98–100
  future of, 56–58
  major trends in, 23–40
  nature of, 117–123
  over-all program for, 132–134
  purposes of, 123–131, 163
  and urban education, 117–119, 143–144
Rural electrification, 55, 127
Rural income (*see* Income, rural)
Rural life, changes in, 4–6, 120–122
  major trends in, 23–40, 56–58
  resources in, 104–107, 119–120
Rural population (*see* Population, rural)
Rural property, assessment of, 441
Rural schools, changes in, 3, 15–19
  definition of, 135–136
  enrollment in (*see* Enrollment)
  program for, 132–134

Rural schools, purposes of, 123–131
    analysis of, 117–123
  reports on, 15–18
  and urban schools, compared, 117–119
Rural settlement, patterns of, 23, 32–34

S

Salaries, schedules for, 371–372
  of superintendents, 370–371
  of teachers, 369–370
School-building planning, architect in, 416
  community discussion of, 412–413
  curriculum in, 414–415
  estimated enrollment in, 413–414
  number and type of rooms, 415–416
    Wilson's formula for, 415
  state specialist service for, 417
School buildings, agricultural suite, 420–421
  auditorium, 420
  branch elementary, 428
  campus school, 427
  classrooms, 415–419
  color schemes, 424
  facilities for community use, 142, 296, 430
  garage, 423–424
  homemaking center, 421–423
  library, 419–420, 430
  new ideas for, 411, 417–418
  one- and two-story, 426, 427
  one-teacher, 427–428
  site of, 425–426
  state aid for, 429–430
  teacherage, 428–429
School districts, city, 330, 334, 337, 338
  common- (*see* Common-school districts)
  community (*see* Community school districts)
  consolidated, 95
  county (*see* County unit)
  dependent, number of, 338
  high school, 336, 338
  intermediate (*see* Intermediate districts)
  local (*see* Local districts)
  number of, 3, 15, 335–341, 452
  organization of, 91–96, 329
  origin of, 328
School districts, pupil transportation and, 358, 406–407
  reorganization of (*see* Reorganization of school districts)
  size of, 3, 92–94, 332–341
  socioeconomic factors in, 95, 295–296
  town or township, 335–337
  types of, 334–337, 452
  (*See also* Administrative units; County unit; Local districts)
School enrollment (*see* Enrollment)
School finance (*see* Public school finance)
School lunches, 55
  in homemaking education, 203–204
School year, length of, 14–15
Schooling, years of, 40, 159–160, 164–166
    median, completed, 157
    related to income, 50–51
Schools (*see* Rural schools)
Seasonal workers (*see* Migratory agricultural workers)
Secondary school (*see* High schools; Vocational education, in agriculture)
Segregation, 274, 276, 277, 283, 290
Sight-saving class, 263–264
Smith-Hughes Act, 55, 175, 189, 226, 243
Smith-Lever Act, 243
Southern states, education in, 14, 26, 165
    of Negroes, 282–284
Spanish-Americans, education of, 290–291
  number of, in United States, 274, 275
Special services, school (*see* Pupil personnel services)
Speech defectives, services for, 264
Standards of living, improvement in, 120
  and income, 42
  index of, 125–127
  rural, farm and nonfarm, 125–127
    and urban, 5
  in settlement pattern, 34
  in the South, 165
State aid, for adult education, 298, 344–346
  amount of, 342–343, 459–460
  for building, 429–430
  development of, 451–453
  distribution of (*see* Distribution of state school funds)
  for reorganization, 342–343
  sources of, 459–463

State aid, for transportation, 408–409
  undesirable features of, 52, 435
  for vocational education in agriculture, 189–190
State taxes, 460–463
Subject curriculum, 149, 166
Submarginal incomes, 44, 128
Superintendents, county, 362–363
    number needed, 368
    professional preparation of, 378, 383–385
    salaries of, 355, 370–371
  intermediate-district, 383–384
Supervision, special, in intermediate district, 358
Supervisors, number required, 368
Supervisory district, 96
Supervisory union, 354
  professional staff in, 361
Surveys, of community needs, 306
  of development of schools, 15–18
  of dropouts, 159–163
  of New York schools, 95

T

Tax assessment, inequalities of, 55, 438–439, 462
  maps for, 442
  personnel for, 434, 440–445
  provisions for, 439–441
  rate of, 433, 440, 444–445
  units for, 440, 441
  valuation problems in, 437, 439–440, 445
Tax colony, 437
Taxes, development of, 450–453
  income, 50, 437, 447, 461, 462
  local, 434–435, 445, 458–459, 462, 465
  nonproperty, 445–448, 460–461
    in New York, 445–446
    in Pennsylvania, 447–448
  poll, 448
  principles of, 462–463
  property, 433–435, 460
    criticism of, 435–437
  real estate, 433–437, 440, 445, 447
    farm, 55, 438
    transfer, 447–448
  sales, 437, 445–446, 460–461
  school district, 433, 435, 440, 445–448
Taxes, state, 52, 459–462
  total revenues from, 433, 459–460
  use of, for schools, 344, 451–452, 460–462
Taxpaying ability, 57–58, 87, 466
Teacher education, establishment of, by Horace Mann, 16
Teacherage, 428–429
Teachers, certification of, 377
  living conditions of, 373, 428–429
  in Negro schools, 284, 285
  number of, 368
  of one-teacher schools, 379–380
  preparation of, 3, 16, 151, 279, 375–380
  professional organizations for, 385–386
  retirement of, 372
  salaries of, 49–50, 369–370
    rural and urban, 50, 456–457
    trends in, 456, 457
  tenure of, 374–375
Teaching units, 466
Technical institutes, 177
Technological advance and rural life, 35
Tenancy contracts, 280
Tenant farmers, 36, 128
  disadvantages of, 278, 282
Tenure, teacher, 374–375
Term, school, 14–15, 279
    in Negro schools, 284–285
Tertiary community, 80, 344
  (*See also* Community, rural)
Town or township school districts, 335–337
Transportation, development of, 34
  (*See also* Pupil transportation)

U

Underprivileged groups (*see* Disadvantaged groups)
Universities and colleges, 18–19
Urban areas, as influences on rural life, 5
  migration to (*see* Migration)
Urban population, distribution of, 26–28
Urban schools, expenditures in, 456–457
  and rural schools, 117–119

V

Vacation school, 299
Vestibule schools in industry, 225

Villages, adult education in, 218, 305
  age distribution in, 87
  characteristics of, 78, 82–89
  definition of, 82
  financial ability of, 87
  growth and decline of, 78, 83–85
  migration to, 5, 31
  number of, 82–85
  population of, 77, 85
  school buildings in, 94, 428
  school organization in, 92–94
  taxation in, 440
  types of, 85–87
Visual aids, 471–476
Vocational counseling, illustrations of, 301–303
Vocational education, in agriculture, administration of, 187–190
    classrooms and equipment for, 420–421
    community program for, 190–191
    continuing-education function of, 178–182
    cooperation of teachers in, 188
    by Cooperative Extension Service, 243–251
    courses of study in, 182–185
    financing of, 55, 189–190, 467
    by Future Farmers of America, 186–187
    guidance function of, 178–182
Vocational education, in agriculture, in high schools, 39–40, 179–182
    objectives of, 175–177
    preparatory function of, 182–185
    prevocational, 179–180
    pupil participation in, 180–181
    supervised farming programs, 182–184
  in high schools, 38–39
  in intermediate districts, 359
  provisions for, 55
  (*See also* Business education; Family-life education; Homemaking education; Industrial education)

W

Wages, rural, 36, 43, 278
Welfare benefits for teachers, 372–373
Wheeler–Howard Act of 1934, 288
Wilson's formula for number of rooms in school building, 415
Work-experience projects, 167, 183
  (*See also* Community-centered schools; Resource-use education)

Y

Year, school, 14–15
Youth, education of (*see* High schools; Life-adjustment education; out-of-school education)